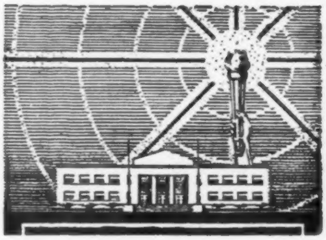
THE

SOCIAL STUDIES

FOR TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS



CONTINUING
THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK
VOLUME XLIV, NUMBER 4
APRIL, 1953

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIV, NUMBER 4 — *Continuing The Historical Outlook* — APRIL, 1953

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As the Editor Sees It

The Educational Testing Service at Princeton is known by educators all over the country, for it provides testing programs for a wide and tremendously large variety of needs. Its annual report recently came to hand and among the interesting data contained in it were some facts that must be disturbing to those concerned with the quality of teaching in this country. The EST was reporting on the results of the Selective Service College Qualification Test, the program by which draft deferment of college students is determined. A study was made of a sample of 3,000 papers out of the 74,000 written last year to determine how students in the various major subjects compared on the test. The test consists of a verbal part and a quantitative part, given equal weight, and the study showed that students majoring in engineering, physical sciences and mathematics did best, while those majoring in education did poorest. Furthermore, the same general results held true on each part of the test taken separately. In other words, even on the verbal part of the test, math and engineering majors clearly outscored education majors. The latter were lowest under any system of scoring.

Nor could the picture be brightened by any further analysis of the results. Even when the general field of education was broken down into specialties, such as secondary, elementary, art, physical education, commercial, and so on, the result was the same. Some were better than others, but all groups were clearly inferior to majors in all other fields. Other studies have indicated this same situation; one made last fall shows it to be true even on the graduate level.

We must not jump hastily to the conclusion that these statistics indicate that present or future school teachers are inferior people. In the first place, the study reveals nothing about women majors in education. It is quite possible and even probable that they might make a healthier comparative showing, and the majority of teachers are women. And again, the study does not take into account those college men who are at present doing their work in the liberal arts and who may subsequently go into teaching. They were not identifiable, and they in all likelihood would tend to raise the standard of ability of the whole group of future male teachers.

Yet after we have discounted these points, the picture is still a disturbing one. The profession traditionally has borne a certain stigma as being composed, at least in the popular mind, of people who were impractical or incapable of competing in the business world. The ETS findings seem to indicate that there may be a modicum of truth in the assumption. We must face the validity of one of these propositions: that students are accepted in colleges as education majors who could not gain admission to liberal arts or scientific schools; or that the over-all cultural training program in teachers' colleges and education curricula is inferior to that elsewhere; or that young men of ability, ambition and promise avoid the teaching profession because of its low financial return and opportunity for advancement. I suspect that all three of these propositions are true in part.

We are soon to face a period when qualified teachers will be far fewer than the demand; in fact, this is already true in many areas. Are we then to be compelled to man our schools in the next decade with not only too few teachers, but with inferior ones at that? If the ETS study means anything, it means just that. It is a prospect that should deeply concern the whole nation, yet there is little evidence that anyone except educators themselves is really worried. The solutions to the condition are complex, different and time-consuming. Basically of course it is a matter of money; teaching must be made attractive enough to compete with business, engineering or even ordinary labor. At the same time our training of teachers must become as culturally challenging and worthy as that required of other college graduates so that it cannot become a refuge for the weak. And finally there must be a positive recruitment program carried on by both the state and the profession, emphasizing the many satisfactions that actually come from teaching. Until all these things are done the future of the teaching profession can only grow darker, for the needs will be ever greater and the means of meeting them ever less.

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The Impulse of Equality in Jefferson's Virginia

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Brooklyn, New York

Many of Jefferson's ideas were the eloquent expression of homely accents spoken by his neighbors of the Piedmont, among whom he moved and whose tribune he became. These folks had settled in the western counties of Virginia because they wanted cheap land unencumbered by leases, quitrents and mortgages. The best land of Tidewater East had been acquired by the plantation barons whose methods of adding acreage, say the historians in whispers, ran all the way from simple hornswoggling to grand larceny. The land-poor could either remain the tenants of the big landlords or they could pull up their small stakes and strike out for themselves, westward into the wilderness, there to clear a homestead and establish their independence. For people with a pittance of capital and no influence, this was the only hope of a better future. A person's status in an agricultural society was totally dependent on land. Immigrant, indentured servant, ambitious tenant and the plain disappointed headed into the setting sun to grow up with the country. One thing was pretty certain. The opportunities for becoming a ranking tobacco planter in the Tidewater of the eighteenth century were negligible. A continent was at his back door inviting the common man to come and settle and acquire status.

Before Jefferson became the spokesman of the small-holding pioneers, they had been spoken for in the Burgesses by Patrick Henry. It is anybody's guess that, had no Jefferson appeared to replace Henry as the champion of the up-country settler, some other representative might have stepped forward to advocate the political reforms needed by the fastest growing segment of the population. It is to Jefferson's credit that he sensed the course of history and gave it philosophy and principle far beyond the rhetorical display of his buckskin compatriot. One may ask: why didn't Patrict Henry remain the leader of the insurgents and the exponent of reform in the Virginia legislature when, as governor, he had no effective opposition? Once political independence was won and religious liberty incorporated in the Virginia constitution (1785), Henry accepted the *status quo* for all it was worth to him. He became a noisy and successful lawyer fighting the cases of his social superiors and exhibiting his talents for real estate speculation among the court house crowd. Patrick Henry remained a provincial with his eyes on the rivers running down to the Atlantic. Virginia was good enough for him. He fought against the adoption of the federal constitution with a passion that might have been better employed in revising the lopsided constitution of his own state.

Jefferson forecast the pre-industrial development of this country with considerable accuracy. He sensed the grass-root movement

at a time when its centers of activity were scattered among the clearings of the Ohio, in the upper valley of the Shenandoah and on the rich grass meadows of "Kaintuck." He did this without telegraph or opinion poll. Riding among the rolling hills of Albemarle County he could watch the progress of eastern indentured servants, their years of bondage behind them, leading their farm wagons through the reddish mud of the low Piedmont hills toward the promised valley beyond the Blue Ridge. He knew of the migrations from the north of the Scotch Presbyterians. A generation back they had left Ulster for Pennsylvania. Now they were pressing forward into the western counties of Virginia. His father, Peter Jefferson, had surveyed the regions that were being settled by German and Swiss religious communities, wanting only to be left alone to build beautiful barns and run a furrow through the rich lands of the Valley. From his mountain perch above Charlottesville, Jefferson was reminded every day that American destiny lay under western skies. He lived in a time when every American discussed real estate values beyond the Alleghenies the way we do baseball and radio, but it is doubtful if there was another man in the country who appreciated the *meaning* of the west in our country's history as did Thomas Jefferson.

Jefferson's convictions on the subject of religious toleration were strongly colored by the opinions of the dissenting groups who settled in the up-country. His own beliefs were not entirely a matter of reading the French philosophers or the history of the religious wars of the seventeenth century. Like all literary folk, he quoted books a great deal and commented on what he read. Ideas fascinated him. He was a man of intellect in search of the key to human progress, and he tried to deduce principles to guide his steady reading. But it would be a mistake to stress his intellectual principles and discount the importance of the religious minorities that appealed to him for help. Dissenting minorities asked him to promote a bill for religious liberty so that they could worship God not as second-class votaries, but as the equals of any Anglican worshipper. It was the up-country hallelujah chorus, joined in by Dunkard and Baptist, by Mennonite and Moravian, by Presbyterian and Methodist, that spurred Jefferson to advocate religious liberty.

The agricultural economy of the Piedmont, a part of Virginia that began along a line connecting Richmond to Petersburg, where the first falls were to be seen, was not very different from that of the Tidewater. The eastern counties were located on navigable rivers that connected directly with the open sea. The Piedmont could not be reached by the ships that shuttled between England and the Old Dominion. The land elevation starting at the Fall line prevented these ocean-going vessels from further inland navigation. The result was a Piedmont isolated from the sea lanes that directly connected colony to mother country. Her settlers were first to feel the overwhelming loneliness of life in the forest clearings—a round of dangerous monotony unrelieved by the cozy view of a dilapidated wharf. No longer could they dispel their loneliness by the thought that a ship, direct from the Thames estuary, might tie up in the afternoon to unload some prized English manufactures. The west began at the Fall line. It was transportation that made all the difference in the world between the settlements on the James, the York and the Potomac and those lost among the isolated foothills of the Blue Ridge.

The up-country planter, cut off from the English warehouse, had to become more self-reliant than his countrymen on deep water. The authority of King and Parliament became still weaker when, added to the three thousand miles of ocean, the settler faced the endless horizon of a continent. It was a sight that eclipsed the vision of London drawing rooms, of comfortable taverns serving tipple, of the Bristol waterfront and the bustle of Westminster. Even Williamsburg gossip, of more immediate interest than London coffee-house conversation, hardly penetrated into the Piedmont. The planter read the *Virginia Gazette* when it made its long journey inland, but it was always last month's copy. His furniture was cruder and his clothing was apt to be homespun and made locally rather than the finished English products available to the Tidewater. The cost of transportation from Richmond, on the Fall line, to Charlottesville, in Albemarle County, might be twice the cost of carrying the article from London to Richmond. Wertenbaker in *The Old South* reports that freight charges on a hogs-

head of tobacco from Louisa to Richmond, a distance of 46 miles, was greater than the freight to London. A tobacco planter on the upper Roanoke paid $17.00 a hogshead wagonage to Petersburg. These rates may account for the fact that Jefferson, when he built Monticello, found it cheaper to have a blacksmith hammer out nails on the spot than to buy them in Richmond and pay the freight to Charlottesville. No wonder he was moved to quick action when, as President, he heard of Napoleon's diplomatic skullduggery that might close off the mouth of the Mississippi to the settlers in the Ohio Valley. Transportation was an item to be taken into account by all the settlers of the Piedmont many times a day because they could not survive unless they traded their staples for the goods of the Atlantic seaboard.

Life in the "mountains", as the Piedmont was called, was more independent and more primitive than in the eastern countries. At Shadwell, where Jefferson was born, his father might have to roll out of bed at night to scare off the wolves from the sheep fold, travel ten miles to attend church and perform the duties of accoucheur in an emergency. Back-country people stopped wearing wigs for greater comfort, gave up perfumed stockings to the women and sported, instead, "buckskin breeches, Indian moccasins and hunting shirts without coats to cover them, crowned with coonskin caps" (Dodd). How these virile garments contrasted with the satin fronts and silver buckles of the ceremonious Williamsburg gentlemen in the Burgesses is described by Carl Becker:

> "To this assembly of the burgesses in 1765, there came from the back-country beyond the first falls of the Virginia rivers, the frontier of that day, many deputies who must have represented, in dress and manners as well as in ideas, a sharp contrast to the eminent leaders of the aristocracy. Among them was Thomas Marshall, father of a famous son, and Patrick Henry, a young man of twenty-nine years, a heaven-born orator and destined to be the leader and interpreter of the silent simple folk of the Old Dominion. In Hanover County, in which this tribune of the people was born and reared and which he now represented, there were, as in all back-country counties, few great estates and few slaves, no notable country seats with pretension to architectural excellence, no modishly dressed aristocracy with leisure for reading and cultivation of manners becoming a gentleman. Beyond the tidewater, men for the most part earned their bread by the sweat of their brows, lived the life and esteemed the virtues of a primitive society, and braced their minds with the tonic of Calvin's theology—a tonic somewhat tempered in these enlightened days by a more humane philosophy and the friendly emotionalism of simple folk living close to nature."

The Tidewater region of Virginia is in a coastal plain. Most of the soils are a mixture of sand and clay in varying proportions. During the glacial age the sheets of ice which covered the northern parts of the country moved along and pulverized and intermixed the soil to make it productive later. Below the Mason and Dixon line, the rays were too strong to allow the ice sheet to continue its grinding process. The soil of eastern Virginia, therefore, is the product of rocks disintegrated on the very spot, or somewhere directly upstream or uphill and washed down by the rains. Most of the soil is sand and clay, with little or no lime intermixed by the grinding action of the glaciers. The lack of deep frost, with the spring thaw that follows, leaves the earth hard-packed the year around. Clay soil has little absorption and heavy rains produce immediate floods. Great floods are on record long before the forests were felled. In June 1771, for example, a flood from the mountains destroyed the James river crops as far down as Westover, the home of the Byrds, sweeping away houses, people, cattle and some 4,000 hogsheads of tobacco from the landings. While catastrophes of this magnitude were exceptional, heavy rains in the early spring leached the flatlands and eroded the hills with seasonal regularity.

The Piedmont and Blue Ridge were islands when the Tidewater lay under the sea. They possess a priority in the accumulation of humus from the forests but this is a shallow advantage and there is little lime to keep the soil productive. Tobacco is a "robber" crop, exhausting the soil rapidly. It was easier to pull up stakes

and move west than to nurse the earth along with fertilizers and crop-rotation. The learned planters with charge accounts at the London booksellers had read Arthur Young's magazine and knew the import of Jethro Tull's and Viscount Townshend's experiments with soil and livestock. Jefferson sang the praises of contour plowing. Washington corresponded with Young. Both respected the conservation practices of the German farmers in the Shenandoah. The catch was that diversified farming could not support the plantation style of living. The Virginia planter was trapped by the law of demand and supply. Tobacco was the only collateral upon which the British factors would advance credit, and tobacco hogshead were the federal reserve notes of the day. The failure to apply rotation and diversification was a result of erecting an economy on a staple crop. The same cash-crop dilemma will face the planter of the 19th century, except that cotton will have replaced tobacco. Only the Mennonites and Moravians in the Shenandoah broke the pattern of cultivating the tobacco staple and followed the European tradition of diversification instead.

When Virginia took the road to revolution, the eagerness to denounce King George was, as expected, more unrestrained in the Piedmont and Valley than among the eastern county gentry. Here, among the hills and broad meadows, were the small people without capital or influence who made up the bulk of the population and whose history is written not in names but in numbers. As with their poor English cousins in the old country, the institutions of the new world conspired to put them in their old place. They had been "hemmed in and enmeshed in the power of those who had both capital and influence." Little by little, says James Truslow Adams, "the resentment over the land situation, combined with other factors, tended to bring classes and sections into sharp alignment" and to "create a smouldering fire of resentment on the part of the frontiersman and frequently the small farmer or landless man of the older settlement against the rich, which was to create a fertile field of propaganda in days to come."

When the Virginian revolutionary convention met at Richmond in 1775 some of the resentment sprang out in a series of laws that presumed secession from Great Britain. "The King's taxes were remitted for the time . . . Surveyors were authorized to lay out tracts of land in the west, soldiers and squatters taking these tracts on the merest formalities—lands that belonged to the crown. Debts due British merchants, although not formally sequestered at this time, were not expected to be paid . . . all taxes were to remain uncollected till the autumn of 1777 . . . an issue of paper money was immediately authorized . . . The earl of Dunmore, governor of Virginia, was formally declared a deserter from his post and an enemy of the people. . . ." (Dodd: *Virginia Takes the Road to Revolution*)

While these ordinances were binding on all, the quickness with which they were enacted in the summer of 1775 showed a surprising spirit of unanimity behind the move toward independence. Although Peyton Randolph presided, the radical party from the up-country seemed to supply the enthusiasm for the reforms. The party of "sanity and deliberation" from the river counties might have mumbled something about the flagrant disloyalty to king and empire of the up-country rabble; the fact is that this time they did not shout "Treason!" at the agitators. They all had something to gain from a moratorium on taxes, cheap paper money, the promise of crown land being dumped on the market for greedy speculation and the repudiation of debts contracted with British merchants. Jefferson estimated that in 1775 Virginia owed British merchants at least two million pounds sterling. Greene (*Revolutionary Generation*) says that the planters believed that they were "a species of property annexed to certain mercantile houses in London." In the years preceding the Revolution, it is of interest to know, the tobacco market had fallen to almost half its normal price. So if the up-country party broke the fabric of loyalty and agitated for the Revolution, the plantation aristocrats, conscious of their power position, curbed the buckskin enthusiasm and turned the beginnings of a social revolution in Virginia into a political revolution against King George. They never permitted Patrick Henry, in his revolutionary period, to run away with the show. And later, when Jefferson became the

champion of reform in Virginia, the planters supported him within the federal framework as long as he did not challenge materially their position as a ruling oligarchy within the state. Then, secure in their control of the majority of eastern counties, they dismissed Jefferson's plea for the democratization of the Virginia constitution with a pinch of snuff.

Who were these people of the up-country, the settlers of the Piedmont, the men who first plowed up the rich loam of the Shenandoah and made clearings in the vastnesses of the Alleghenies? Were they all indentured servants from the Tidewater counties? What drove them to settle in a wilderness, away from the sight of ships, with their cargoes of precious stuffs to remind them that the things they sang about, and the song itself, all hailed from across the sea? A great many were English indentured servants. The largest single racial group in the Piedmont and Valley were the Scotch-Irish who started leaving Ulster in the early eighteenth century because of social and economic persecution. One week in 1727, says John Fiske, six ship-loads were landed in Philadelphia. In two years, 1773 and 1774, more than 30,000 arrived! Fiske believes it probable that at least half a million Presbyterian Scotch transferred from Ulster to the American colonies between 1730 and 1770, making them a sixth of the population on the eve of the Revolution. In the 1730's, Governor Gooch of Virginia was dispensing the Valley lands on a very liberal scale and this drew thousands of them to the western counties. Many headed for western Pennsylvania to form a buffer against the Indians. From there they found their way through the gaps of the mountains into the beautiful valley of the Shenandoah.

Another large group to settle western Virginia was the Germans from the Palatinate who came to the colonies because of religious persecution and the opportunity of getting good land cheap. The Moravian Brotherhood and the Mennonites were first made welcome in Pennsylvania, where the Quakers offered them a refuge, and then, as the best lands were taken, many of them drifted into western Pennsylvania and Virginia. Unlike the Presbyterians, who had behind them a long political tradition, the German communities had no interest in the political life of their new land. Their religion forbade them to bear arms. They understood that the right to participate in the affairs of state meant also the duty to fight in its defense. Their farms became the model of the west and their imported *kunst* from the Old World made them sought after in the arts and crafts. "In neither war nor politics," says their historian, J. W. Wayland (quoted in *The Old South*), "have any great number of the Valley of Virginia Germans been eminent leaders." When the Revolution came, the German settlements were completely in sympathy with political independence because they had no sentimental or religious attachments to England. An English traveler (quoted in Wertenbaker) who was arrested by a Committee of Safety in a town settled by German immigrants, reveals their sentiment. One of the Committee asked him: "Howsh can you shtand sho shtyff for King Shorsh akainsht dish koontery?" The Englishman, who had not foreseen the development of the straightman in American vaudeville, had no answer. Among themselves, the German settlers spoke German, ran German schools and published German newspapers.

Piedmont Virginia was the first "West" in American history. It gave Patrick Henry his following when he was elected to the Burgesses in 1765. It was the home of Thomas Jefferson and the inspiration of his faith in agrarian democracy. In the darkest hours of the Revolution, when all other sources failed him, Washington relied on the Piedmont volunteers to fill up the gaps in his sorry army. Yet, after the Revolution, in a couple of decades, radical Piedmont had come completely under the control of the same oligarchy that ran the political life of Virginia in the river counties. The tobacco planters expanded their acreage beyond the Fall line to give the plant new soil sustenance. Here in the first decade of the nineteenth century we find the old-line families perfectly ensconced in their new manor houses. Here are the Carters, the Southalls, the Dabneys, the Randolphs, the Peytons, the Pages residing at Berry Hill, Oak Hill, Ash Lawn, Montpelier, Bremo and a dozen other estates comparable with the best in the Tidewater. In the last decade of his life, Patrick Henry had

become the legal mouthpiece of the aristocrats, a defender of the *status quo* and a rich dabbler in real estate. Piedmont now joined with Tidewater to keep political power away from the Valley and the Allegheny counties. Time had caught up with Jefferson's maneuver to transfer the capital from Williamsburg to Richmond (1780), in order to cut down the entrenched power of the Tory families. Time had turned Richmond into another headquarters of the landed gentry and a windfall, besides, to the Byrd family, who owned most of the real estate in the neighborhood.

The small-holding settler, despite his majority, never succeeded in challenging the plantation oligarchy that ruled Virginia. Jefferson's attempts to introduce electoral reform leading to the democratization of the state constitution always failed. It may be argued that the reason why he was successful in abolishing the laws of entail and primogeniture (1776 and 1777), was that they did not interfere with the economic power of the ruling class. The same applies to the religious-freedom act adopted in 1785. All three reforms touched on vestigial carry-overs from England that served no purpose in a country where land was cheap and plentiful, where the sons of a landlord had a continent to possess, and where the large number of dissenting sects challenged any church monopoly. But after these encouraging reforms, the small farmers of the western counties remained the orphans of the Virginia legislature. They were branded "Cohees" by their social superiors, a name that signified people of non-English origin. The Cohees had little use for slaves, they practiced diversified farming, their holdings were small and they believed in intensive cultivation. The plantation "Tuckahoes" had hundreds of slaves and thousands of acres managed by overseers. They depended on a staple crop, they patterned their life on the social ostentation of the English aristocrats and employed their intelligence, of which they had plenty, in politics, gambling and the acquisition of real estate. They supported Mr. Jefferson in national elections because he was Tuckahoe despite his Cohee notions. They reasoned that, for all his radicalism, he was still a slaveholder, the owner of a magnificent mansion and a member of the Randolph clan to boot. A man like that could be indulged a bit. Besides, the alternative would be putting up with John Adams, a Massachusetts lawyer who would be constitutionally incapable of appreciating the pre-eminent position of Virginia in the family of states. So they voted Republican to keep Virginia at the helm in national affairs and then ignored Mr. Jefferson, the Sage of Monticello, when he wrote letters to his friends recommending a state-supported school system, electoral reform and sweeping changes in the power of the county judges. To this day, the courthouse crowd still runs Virginian politics. Only when the "West" moved into Kentucky (1792), Tennessee (1796) and the Northwest Territory, did the new constitutions reflect the agrarian democracy that Jefferson preached. In a political and social sense, the "West" began on the other side of the Alleghenies. Jefferson had spoken for the future of his country. He was never successful in turning his own beloved state into a shining example of that future.

The Nature and Role of Money

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Money is a universal medium of exchange and a measure and a method of storage of value generally lubricating but often destroying economic systems. Its nature is thoroughly simple to the economist and equally mysterious to the non-economist. The former, hereby, attempts an understandable explanation to the latter.

Is Money Productive?

Production is the creation of Wealth in the form of goods or services.

Production consists of the use of the three factors of production:[1]

Land

Labor

Capital (Man-created goods used for further production)

It has been said that an ancient simian creature was the first to create capital which it did by breaking a dead twig to hit and dislodge a far coconut.

Money is not one of the factors of production. True, it assists in the apportionment of the other factors in the modern economy, but money is not directly a factor of production.

Money, a medium of exchange, is a *sine qua non* of the modern large scale, endless-belt, roundabout, indirect, specialized, division-of-labor, method of production. It is the medium which makes possible the exchange of the myriad varieties of goods produced.

Money may be likened to the lubricating oil that enables modern machinery to operate.

Money is an indirect aid to the conduction of the modern economic system, but it is not one of the factors of production.

Why Money?

Barter was adequate in primitive economies.

Then, nearly everyone produced nearly all he consumed and consumed nearly all he produced. Goods were simple and few, and, therefore, goods could be exchanged directly for other goods.

However, this simple economy of "nature people" soon changed. Even the economic life among the early American Indians was developed enough to need a medium of exchange. Wampum, choice shells on a string, was used as money—a medium.

Today, it would be impossible, for example, for a miner on the Gogebic Iron Range to exchange the ore he digs for beefsteak. Money, a medium, is obligatory today to make possible the high division of labor and the resultant large scale efficiencies of production.

What Is Money?

Money has three major functions, the first of which has the greatest significance:[2]

1. Medium of exchange
2. Standard of Value
3. Store of Value

Price is a *monetary* expression of value.

Money is anything (commodity or symbol) which is generally (widely) acceptable in exchange.

Money, in its origin, was always a commodity of intrinsic value, i.e., an economic good.

Money, in modern times, is mostly of no intrinsic value, i.e., it is of no use or value in and of itself.

Money, today, is mostly only a widely acceptable symbol of value. It is a medium, a store,[3] and a standard of value; but it is not value in and of itself.

What are the Qualities of Money?

Money originally was a commodity of economic value. There were several qualities of an economic good which made it desirable as money. These qualities may most readily be remembered as the six "-bilities" of money:

1. Accepta - bility
2. Dura - bility
3. Cogniza - bility
4. Porta - bility
5. Mallea - bility
6. Sta - bility

These six "-bilities" of money were each the *sine qua non* of a good money in the days of the origin of money. Then money was an economic good. It was a usable commodity. Divisibility is often listed, also. However, divisibility and malleability are essentially synonymous.

Diamonds would never make a good money because they are neither cognizable nor malleable (divisible). They possess all the other desirable qualities.

Gold made a good money because it possessed all the qualities.

Cattle were a poor money. However, that they were used as such is evidenced by the statement, "a pecuniary economy." *Pecus* was the Latin word meaning cattle. However, cattle were devoid of "-bilities" 2, 5 and 6, and partially deficient in the others, and, therefore, ceased to be a standard of value.

Salt was once money. The Latin word *salarium* means salt. From this word we get the word which is used to designate the money an employee is paid—namely, his salary.

Since World War I the commodity nature of money with the necessary accompanying The symbolic nature of money is prominent "-bilities" has been losing its importance. today. It is more and more an essentially worthless piece of paper upon which are stamped symbols of various magnitudes.

A paper currency is known as a managed currency. Its total amount is limited only by the judgment of the monetary authority, as the printing press is capable of printing an infinite quantity, especially when the larger numbers are used.

Most countries today have managed currencies.

Is Money a Result of Trial and Error?

The barter system prevailed long before money was thought of or invented. As has been mentioned, in a primitive economy, before capital was created to any extent, every family "produced nearly all it consumed, and consumed nearly all it produced." Only a few simple exchanges were made, and they were exchanges of goods for goods.

The goods which proved most acceptable in exchange came to be used more than other goods for exchange purposes. Thus, such goods came to be the principal media of exchange and later were called money.

Precious metals have served longest as money. The oldest coin in existence is one from Lydia, 700 B.C., made of electrum, a combination of gold and silver.

The Chinese long used iron discs with a hole in the center of each. Russia used platinum but found it too expensive. Others have used copper, silver, gold, and tin of all shapes and sizes.

The Indians used both white and purple shells as beads on a string and known as wampum. The purple ones were of triple value and were frequently counterfeited through dyeing the white ones purple.

In the Colonial period of the United States the colonists often used the Indians' money. Beaver and wampum were widely used. The Virginia colonists grew their money—namely, tobacco. Farther North the money was also grown in the form of beans and corn which were each used as a medium of exchange.

The precious metals, especially silver and gold, proved to be the best through the process of trial and error. They dominated the monetary scene beginning with the Commercial Revolution and bearing full fruitage from the beginning of the Industrial Revolution to World War I.

During World War II the United States minted a "Victory" five-cent piece, made of silver, copper, and manganese. It was a "nickel" devoid of all nickel. Also during World War II, a penny was stamped from zinc-coated steel strips. It was a "copper" devoid of all copper.

Is Money Income and/or Wealth?

Wealth is any material object which is scarce and useful.

Income consists of the economic goods and services which one receives.

Money, as money, is not usable. It is only a means and never an end good.

Money is a measure or standard by which income and wealth are measured.

Wealth may be used to produce income, but income is the end goal of the economic process.

Neither wealth nor money enter directly into the standard of living. Wealth may be converted into income which can be measured.

Money is used to measure both income and wealth, but money is neither income nor wealth.

What is Money in the United States?

The monetary media of the United States may be outlined as follows:

I. Metallic money
   A. Silver
      1. Dollars
      2. Subsidiary silver
         a. Half-dollars
         b. Quarter-dollars
         c. Dimes or ten-cent pieces
   B. Gold (not in circulation)
      1. Eagles
      2. Half-eagles
      3. Quarter eagles
      4. Bullion (Held only under the jurisdiction of the United States Treasury, except such as is held under license by the Federal Reserve Bank of New York for international shipments, under ear-mark for foreign

countries, and in temporary custody for the Treasury.)

- C. Token or minor coins[4]
  1. Nickel
  2. Penny
- II. Paper money
  - A. Certificates
    1. Gold certificates[5]
    2. Silver certificates
  - B. Notes
    1. Government notes
       - a. United States Notes
       - b. Treasury Notes of 1890[6]
    2. Bank notes
       - a. Federal Reserve Bank Notes[6]
       - b. Federal Reserve Notes
       - c. National Bank Notes[6]
- III. Deposit Credit "Money"[7]
  - A. Demand deposits in banks

How is Deposit Credit "Money" created?

Bank demand deposits subject to check do all the same types of work that money does.

Demand deposits are typically created through a borrower going to the bank and assuring the banker of his desire to borrow and of his ability and intent to repay with interest. He then gives the banker his note and the banker in turn gives the customer a "deposit" slip. The bank's assets (loans and discounts) are then increased by the amount of the note and its liabilities are increased by demand deposits equal to the note minus the discount. The discount is recorded among the liabilities as undivided profits. Therefore, the two sides of the statement are in balance. The above borrowing transaction has created credit "money." The purchasing power medium has been increased by the amount of the "deposit." The borrower may be either a private individual, a private business enterprise, or a governmental unit.

Phillips' formula[8]

$$X = \frac{C}{Kr + 1 - K} = \frac{\text{new cash}}{.20 \times .10 + 1 - .20}$$

demonstrates that loan expansion in the individual bank can not exceed the new cash lodgment by more than 22 per cent (using his magnitudes). The banking system, however, may loan many times more than the new cash because the system experiences very little cash "leakage."

How Does "Money" Determine the Price Level?

The price level is merely a ratio between all the media doing the work of money, including velocity, and the amount of goods and services entering into exchange. For example, if at any given time there are ten billion units of purchasing power medium (money) and ten billion units of goods and services entering into exchange, then the price ratio will be $1 to one commodity. But, if the quantity of money is doubled, the price ratio will be $2 to one commodity. However, if the money is left unchanged at ten billion dollars and the goods are doubled then the price ratio will be 50 cents to one economic good. The price level is then purely a matter of mathematics, *ceteris paribus*.

The "money"-price ratio in operation may be illustrated by the following formula:

P (Price level) =
M (actual money) V (turnover of M) +
M^1 (bank deposits) V^1 (turnover of M^1)
T (total number of typical trade units entering into exchange during the given period, typically a year)

or

$$P = \frac{M V + M^1 V^1}{T}$$

[Both V and V^1 fluctuate. In the early '20's V^1 was 50 and in the late 1920's it was even higher. In the 1930's V^1 was just over 20. Since World War II V^1 has remained just under 20. Formerly V had a turnover about one-half as rapid as V^1. However, they are now about equal.]

For example, what would one expect the price level to be in 1952 as compared to 1939, when using the equation of exchange formula as a basis for projection?

$$1939 \qquad \frac{\$7{,}000{,}000{,}000 \times 20 + \$28{,}000{,}000{,}000 \times 20}{700{,}000{,}000{,}000\text{[9]}} = \$1.00$$

$$1952 \qquad \frac{\$29{,}000{,}000{,}000 \times 20 + \$96{,}000{,}000{,}000 \times 20}{1{,}169{,}000{,}000{,}000\text{[10]}} = \$2.14$$

On the basis of the above data the present price index compared to a 1939 base of 100 should be exactly 214. That is, articles costing $1.00 at the base period should now cost $2.14.

The actual Bureau of Labor Statistics indexes relative to a 1939 base of 100 are as follows:

Wholesale price index, 225
Consumer Price Index, 191

Therefore, the reality conforms quite closely to the formula projection. However, there is some indication that prices are not quite "up to" the formula and that, therefore, consumer prices, especially, should be expected to increase regardless of further credit expansion which will probably again prove to be the easiest method for politicians to secure funds to fight a war—cold or hot.

Does War Make Inflation Necessary?

The problem of a war economy is to produce as many war materials as possible without causing undue poverty among the people.

During World War II it was possible to more than double industrial output (index 240 at the peak) and even farm output was increased by one-third. Therefore, it isn't too much in error to state that we doubled output and Uncle Sam took roughly one-half of the increased total at the war's crux and the people lived just about as well as they did on the eve of the War without the tightening of belts.

Why did prices increase and why were rationing and price ceilings necessary?

The answer is "because the war was financed 60 per cent by credit expansion." The government had to have one-half of the goods output of the people. Therefore, the government had to get as much purchasing power in its control as the people had at their command. Had the government taken one-half the people's money by taxation then there would have been no price rise. However, the government chose to get a purchasing power equal to that of the people, not by taxation, primarily, but by borrowing.

Wars can be financed as follows[11]

1. War Treasure Chest
2. Expropriation
3. Fiat Money
4. Taxation
5. Borrowing

The first two are of no modern significance in a democracy. The United States is not very likely to resort to the third one. By the end of World War II some 40 per cent of the war finance was by taxation. The remainder was by borrowing, through which bank credit was expanded and inflation produced. Had the government taxed enough to "pay as you go for the war" then the people would have had just as many goods and inflation would not have been a problem.

The real cost of a war in the lives, guns, tanks, planes, ships, explosives, etc., ends with the end of the war. These real costs cannot be passed on to any future generation. They (real costs) were undergone once and for all. No one in the future can possibly undergo them.

However, the bookkeeping symbols and so-called "costs," can be recorded and transferred between people for years after the War's end. Such symbolic representations are not costs of the war. They are simply methods by which one person of a later generation profits and another loses to the same extent by such post-war symbolic and bookkeeping machinations.

When the government sells bonds it is borrowing. The bonds that are purchased from the savings of consumers do not cause excess bank credit "money" to be created. However, most of the governmental bonds were responsible for the creation of bank credit "money" and were, therefore, inflationary.

The Federal government has failed to tax to pay the federal debt during the greatest period of prosperity in history—1945 to 1952. Therefore, this experience gives no reason to assume that the lawmakers will finance the "Korean interlude" in a manner to prevent inflation.

How Much Money Is Needed?

This question is much like the one told by Abe Lincoln relative to how long a man's legs should be. That is, there should be enough money to trade for the goods, and there always is.

The thing most needed is to keep the money-goods ratio stable in order that prices may also remain stable.

For example, in the problem given previously it was seen that if the price level was satisfactory, then, if production (T) were to increase by three per cent per year the numerator should also be increased by an equal percentage.

The above statement should not be construed to mean that the writer thinks prices are now at the proper level. Contrariwise, it is thought that prices should be reduced by some 15 to 25 per cent. Perhaps the former reduction would apply more to retail and the latter figure more to wholesale prices.

It would be disastrous for prices to decline to the 1939 level. But for prices to move back some 20 per cent would do justice to many and injury to few, if any, people.

The tragic and disheartening feature at mid-century is that prices are destined to move farther upward. Indeed, for the past two centuries prices have moved upward with wars and downward an equal amount with peace, thereby producing a long-run horizontal trend line of prices. The writer believes that the behavior of the lawmakers in refusing to pay any of the Federal debt through taxation during the past seven post-war years of unprecedented prosperity and thereby reduce prices, is evidence that *the horizontal long-run trend line of the past will be tilted upward in the future.*

That is, Congress and the people have now learned that prices can be managed, and it is doubtful if politicians, or "statesmen," will in the future allow prices to decline as drastically as in the past. In other words, in the future prices will go up drastically through war borrowing and possibly for other emergency purposes—but they (prices) will never again be allowed to decline by an amount equal to the previous incline. Therefore, the long-run trend of prices in the future will be upward and not horizontal as in the past.

Business men, corporations, stockholders, etc., all like price increases, but price declines are anathema to them. This was evidenced in mid-1949 when prices declined a very few points and the "wail of woe" was figuratively deafening. Pressures on the government were mounting to stop the decline.

Essentially, it makes no difference whether with 1,169,000,000,000 units of goods there are $2,500,000,000,000 units of purchasing power media as in the problem given for 1952, or whether there is twice as much or only one-half as much. If there is twice as much then one has to carry twice as much money as before; if only one-half as much purchasing power then one would need to carry only one-half as much money. It is the transitions from low to high prices and, especially, *vice versa* that cause economic imbalance.

Neither the individual nor the nation as a whole would be any more prosperous with twice as much money or any less prosperous with only one-half as much money under the above assumptions. The only injury or benefit to anyone or to the nation would be the maladjustment caused in the process of rising prices or the process of falling prices. Once prices reached stabilization and adjustments were made it would make no difference whether the level of stabilization were twice the height of the original price level or only one half as high.

Monopoly Controls, Price Stability, and Full Employment

Two but not three of the above may be present in an economy at any one time (monopoly controls applies to both capital and/or labor). The United States seems to be choosing the first and last ones of the three, together with an inclining price level.

How Does Money Affect Foreign Trade?

Foreign trade, even as domestic trade, is essentially the exchange of goods for goods. Money is used only as the medium (a medium is a go-between).

In foreign trade, as in domestic trade, if one assumes the absence of money it is easier to see that fundamentally goods do not exchange for money but goods exchange for other goods. Money is only the medium which assists in the exchange of goods for goods.

This fundamental trade of goods for goods is more easily seen in foreign trade than in domestic trade. This is because in domestic trade everyone uses the same monetary medium and therefore there is never any shortage of the medium to enable the exchange of one-half of the goods for the other one-half.

In foreign trade, however, the non-commodity money of one country is of no value in another country. Therefore, the money of one country cannot be used for the purchase of goods in another country. Instead, bills of exchange are used. These bills of exchange on another country arise as a result of the sale and shipment of goods (or services) to another country. For example, if citizens of the United States sell goods to persons in England, then bills are drawn against the Englishmen to whom the goods are sold. These bills are then available to sell to other United States citizens who desire to buy goods from Englishmen. When the sales of the former United States citizens are in balance with the purchase of the latter United States citizens there is neither plethora nor dearth of bills or purchasing power or "international exchange" on England—the demand equals the supply of exchange on England.

Likewise, in England, exchange on the United States arises when Englishmen sell goods or services to those in the United States. If the former sells to and buys from the United States in equal amounts then there is neither an over-supply nor an under-supply of dollar exchange in England. However, if England is buying more from the United States than they are selling to the United States then a "dollar famine" soon appears in England.

This dollar shortage is what has plagued England during the past several years. Obviously, with over seventy nations of the world trading with one another the sales and purchases do not have to balance with any one nation. But the over-all sales and purchases of one nation must balance with the rest of the world as a whole.

The Purchasing Power Parity formula enunciated by Gustav Cassel exemplifies that the currencies of any two countries will exchange one for the other in foreign exchange at a ratio equal to the respective purchasing powers of those currencies in their respective countries.

Will The Gold Standard Be Restored?

During the nineteenth century the gold standard was predominant in the major nations of the World. Since World War I the gold standard has fought a losing battle. At mid-century not one nation is on a gold standard.

The nations of the world are now essentially using managed currencies. Many of them continue to talk in terms of a precious metal as money, but no country freely purchases and/or sells said precious metal and/or exchanges it freely for the other moneys of the country.

The gold dollar in the United States now theoretically consists of approximately 13.714 grains of pure gold, plus the alloy. The gold dollar would then weigh approximately 15.24 grains. It would be nine-tenths pure. However, the gold dollar or any multiple thereof is at present purely academic speculation or legal fiction.

Prior to World War I and for a period in the 1920's the United States dollar of 23.22 grains of pure gold and the English pound of 113.0015 grains of pure gold exchanged, when at par, at a ratio of 4.8665 dollars for one of the pounds. The ratio or price of the English pound in the United States could not vary above the $4.8665 price by more than the cost of shipping gold (the upper gold point or gold export point) to England. Likewise, the sale price of bills drawn on England could not go below $4.8665 by more than the cost of importing gold from England (lower gold point or gold import point).

At mid-century the United States has a theoretical gold dollar of nearly 13.714 grains of pure gold. Likewise, England since the 1949 devaluation has stabilized the pound at $2.80. Therefore, if the two countries should adopt the freely convertible gold standard at the present "pegged" ratio the British pound would contain 2.8 times as many grains of pure gold as does the U. S. dollar—roughly, 38.40 grains.

Who Pays the "Fiddler" What?

Governmental units are now collecting and/or appropriating nearly one hundred billions of dollars from and for the citizens of the United States. This equals thirty per cent of the G. N. P., nearly one-third of the national income, and some two-fifths of the disposable personal income.

This one-third going to government is in reality goods and services. One-third of the

output of the people goes to government. This government "take" is measured in money but money is only the medium and/or measuring instrument. However, every tenth employed person is now working for government and, therefore, of the one-third government "take" from the people much of it is paid back to the people in wages and salaries. Also, "free income" such as schools, parks, roads, security, etc., are means through which the governmental "take" becomes a governmental "give."

The "fiddler" does not want money. He wants goods and/or services. Money is the "go-between" or medium through which the "fiddler" receives goods and services.

How Do Price Levels Affect the Value of the Dollar?

There is an inverse ratio between the price level and the value of the dollar. When prices are low (as in the 30's) the value of the dollar is proportionately high. When prices are high (as in the 40's and early 50's) then the value of the dollar is low.

The goal of monetary and credit management should be stability or neutrality of monetary value. The dollar should remain of the same value from decade to decade and from century to century.

Stability is the one quality of a good money which has not yet been achieved.

Relative to a 1913 value of the dollar of 100 cents, the dollars has had approximately the following values: 1750—\$1.82; 1760—\$1.33; 1770—\$1.33; 1780—\$.45; 1790—\$1.25; 1800—\$.77; 1810—\$.58; 1814—\$.40; 1820—\$.81; 1830—\$.97; 1840—\$.97; 1850—\$1.05; 1860—\$.95; 1864—\$.42; 1870—\$.68; 1880—\$.91; 1890—\$1.11; 1896—\$1.49; 1900—\$1.19; 1910—\$1.03; 1920—\$.44; 1930—\$.80; 1932—\$1.08; 1939—\$.91; 1940—\$.89; 1945—\$.66; 1950—\$.44; 1952—\$.45.

At the several above dates the price level was merely a reciprocal of the value of the dollar. Also, the value of the dollar is always a reciprocal of the price level as in the above data which are based on wholesale price indices.

When the price level is high and the value of the dollar low a period of prosperity is experienced. On the other hand, when the price level is low and the value of the dollar is high a period of depression is experienced. This is the reason that everyone gives lip service to monetary stability but votes for legislators who create inflation.

What of the Origin of Money and Its Symbols?

Much has already been said about barter and trial and error whereby certain commodities of intrinsic value came to be used as media of exchange—money. However, the origin of modern moneys also has much of interest connected therewith.

Paper money probably was first used by the English goldsmiths. They gave "warehouse" receipts for the gold they held for safekeeping. These receipts soon began to be used by merchants as a method of payment. For a long period the receipts were backed by 100 per cent gold. Later the goldsmiths learned that the merchants did not all present their receipts for redemption at the same time. There was always a good gold balance on hand. Then the goldsmiths began to issue receipts in payment in excess of the actual gold held for safekeeping. The gold had thereby become the basis for "credit money."

The *origin of the dollar* can be traced to about 1500 in "Joachim's Valley" where a Bohemian village ruler issued large silver coins called Joachimsthal. They were first called Joachimsthaler as they spread in Germany; later the term was shortened to "thaler." In the Netherlands they were called "dalers." Later when they appeared in England they were called "dollars."

The *origin of the dollar sign* is the cause of much speculation. It may be, say some, a modification of the figure "8" on the Spanish pieces of eight; others think it represents the Pillars of Hercules which appeared on the Spanish coin, the "Pillar" dollar; others maintain that the dollar sign is a contraction of the Ecclesiastical symbol I H S; and some think it is a monogrammatic form for the abbreviation for the United States with the "S" superimposed on the "U."

Coins are minted at present at the mints in Philadelphia, Denver, and San Francisco. The latter two place the first letter of their names as mint marks on the coins. Philadelphia has

never used a mint mark except on the special World War II nickel.

The origin of the word *"cent"* is from the Latin, *centum*. The word "dime" is from the French word of similar spelling which meant one-tenth.

A *five-pointed star* before the serial number on a bill means that the bill is a replacement for one damaged in production, or it is the 100,000,000th bill in a series.

The term *bank* in Latin is *banco,* meaning bench. The Jews of Lombardy had benches in the market-place where they exchanged money and bills. It is said that when one failed the customers broke his bench and therefore the word *bankrupt* (*rotta* means broken). In financing the city of Venice in 1171 a commission was appointed to receive payments to the joint stock fund (Monte). In Northern Italy the Germans called it *Banck* which the Italians changed to *Banco.*

The motto "In God We Trust" first appeared on a two-cent piece in 1864. Secretary Chase placed the motto on the coin in response to pious appeals to have the Deity recognized on our coins.

Detecting *counterfeit money* may be understood by studying the booklet distributed by the United States Secret Service in which counterfeit bills and coins are described. The booklet is entitled *Know Your Money.*

Counterfeit paper currency—but not national bank notes—can generally be detected through the relationship of the Serial Number and the Check Letter. This relationship should possibly not be recorded, but it is available.

What Power Over Money Does Congress Possess?

The framers of the United States Constitution—Article I, Section 8, Part 5—gave Congress power "to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures."

Unfortunately, perhaps, this paragraph contains two distinct matters. One has to do with coinage of money and its value—both domestic and foreign—the other gives Congress power over weights and measures. However, these two entirely different ideas or grants of power are all in one sentence. Therefore, Congress proceeded to coin money and establish its weight, rather than its value, and then stopped. Nothing was done about the "value thereof." Thus, from 1792 to 1934 Congress failed to exercise the power delegated to it to "regulate the value thereof" of money. During the "tragic depression" Congress made one attempt to "regulate the value therof," but it has done nothing, deliberately, since 1934. However, by its enormous expenditures and its failure to tax adequately therefor, it has indeed unwittingly "regulate(d) the value thereof" very greatly downward.

The tragic truth is that there is no current indication that the people and/or Congress either understand the problem or intend to stop depreciating the dollar. For example, while minor economies are always possible, greater Federal income is the only mathematical major possibility of preventing continued inflation while maintaining the present military program ($53 billions or 67 per cent), international commitments ($2.5 billions or 3 per cent), service on the past "military" debt ($6.5 billions or 8 per cent), and veterans' benefits ($4.5 billions or 5 per cent), for a "rough" total of 84 per cent of the total Federal expenditures. The present deficit is nearly 12 billions —approximately equal to all other Federal governmental expenditures. Until the schools assume their obligation to educate the students in economics such maladjustment will continue, unwittingly, to be "planned" by legislators supported by an economically illiterate electorate.

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[1] The entrepreneur is frequently listed as a fourth factor of production. However, his contributions may all be catalogued as parts of the other three factors of production.

[2] Some list one of the functions of money as "The basis of bank credit." However, such is confusing. Bank credit itself, *i.e.*, demand deposits, is now often listed as part, and, of course, a major part, of the purchasing power medium, *i.e.*, money.

[3] A store of value not in and of itself, but in that it will give *command* of goods at a future date.

[4] The term, token money, is a bit chimerical. Some people also label subsidiary silver as token money. Also, all silver money is stamped as being worth more than its bullion content and is, therefore, partially token. However, silver coins have considerable intrinsic value and therefore can hardly be considered merely as token.

[5] Held by Federal Reserve Banks as reserve back of Federal Reserve Notes. This is now merely an "imputed bookkeeping holding" and the gold certificates are not actually possessed by the "Feds."

[6] Called for redemption—no more of them are reissued.

[7] Deposit credit "money" from a strictly technical viewpoint is not money. Practically, however, credit money is the most important medium of exchange. Approximately ninety per cent of all exchange transactions are accomplished through the medium of bank checks. At mid-twentieth century all money in circulation may with much reason be considered as credit money in that none of it is either full-bodied money or representative of full-bodied money. Furthermore, the gold certificates which technically are held by the "Feds" are in form representative money but in practice they are not freely convertible into the metal which they represent.

[8] X=Loan expansion possible as a result of the new cash.
r =The ratio of cash or reserve to deposits.
K =The ratio of derivative deposits to loans.
C =New cash lodgment.

[9] The 700,000,000,000 trade units are assumed in order to make the 1939 price level one or unity or $1.00. The money and velocity figures are as nearly accurate as possible in "round" numbers.

[10] This represents a 1.67 times increase (67%) in production. (Industrial production has increased 120 per cent and farm output 33 per cent since 1939.)

[11] Burrows, Albert H., "The Economics of War Finance," *Vital Speeches*, Dec. 15, 1944, pages 136-138.

The Pennsylvania Intercollegiate Conference on Government:

Learning Democratic Processes by Doing

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Each spring approximately five hundred Pennsylvania college students meet in the state capital at Harrisburg to learn democratic processes through direct participation. These students, as members of the Intercollegiate Conference on Government, annually conduct a model legislative assembly. The type of assembly varies from year to year over a four year cycle: in the first year it takes the form of a state constitutional convention, in the second year, that of a state legislature, in the third year, that of the National Congress, and in the presidential election year it assumes the form of a national party convention. In every case the students are in complete charge of the proceedings. They serve as officers of the assembly, as chairmen of the standing committees, and they constitute the membership of the committees and the legislative body. They debate energetically in committees and in the whole house, and work enthusiastically in hotel corridors to elect their candidates and to secure the adoption of their pet measures. Usually they form coalitions of various delegations which reflect the well-recognized regional interests of the state. In all this, faculty members remain in the background. They sit in the gallery of the assembly hall along with proud parents, inquisitive townspeople and seasoned politicians from the nearby capitol who are astonished at the undergraduate vehemence with which the delegates carry on their work.

In more formal terms the Intercollegiate Conference on Government is a permanent, non-profit association of institutions of higher learning in Pennsylvania dedicated to the education of American youth in democratic processes. Universities, liberal arts colleges, state teachers colleges and technical schools are invited to membership. The policies of the organization are determined by an executive committee made up of one faculty delegate and one student delegate from each participating institution. This group elects annually an executive secretary, a treasurer, secretary and publicity director, each of whom serves without pay. Usually several of these officers are students, though the organization has been fortunate in having as its executive secretary for many years a practicing attorney who has been active in politics on the state level. Incidentally, this illustrates one of the remarkable characteristics of the organization. Although many of its members, both student and faculty, are active in the work of the major political parties, it has not been made an agency of any party. Rather it has earned the respect of political leaders as a training school in politics, and they are happy to receive invitations to speak to its annual assemblies. The financial cost involved in the operation of the organization is a moderate one, and is met by dues levied upon member colleges.

Participating schools are organized into five regional associations which carry on training programs in preparation for the annual legislative meeting. Necessarily the organizational structure rests upon the local campus chapters which are usually established on an extracurricular basis. Their programs vary considerably, but all have one objective in common —that of preparation for the annual meeting.

This meeting, held during a Spring week-end, climaxes the work of an entire year devoted to careful planning. Those campus organizations which are striving to elect one of their members to the speakership are active several months in advance in an effort to line up necessary votes. Other less ambitious delegations seek to enter into that coalition which will prove most advantageous in terms of appoint-

ments and the enactment of measures they intend to sponsor. Resolutions and bills are prepared in advance, and each delegation arrives at the assembly loaded down with the required fifty copies of each proposal. Delegations vary in size, but each is permitted a maximum of twenty-five votes. The first meeting of the model assembly held on a Friday morning is given over to the nomination of candidates for the elective posts of the body. During the remainder of that day the delegates cast their ballots. In recent years the organization has been using the preferential ballot for this purpose. Generally the afternoon and evening sessions on Friday are given over to committee meetings in which bills and resolutions are prepared. These are then considered in meetings of the assembly which generally extend through Saturday and Sunday morning. By following this schedule, the organization manages to carry out its entire program in one week-end. Though the type of assembly varies from year to year, the essentials of organization and program remain the same.

Since its establishment in 1933 much attention has been given by the executive committee to the improvement of the organization. Gradually a number of principles have emerged from the sessions of this body which provide it with a working frame of reference in determining policy for the organization. These principles are agreed upon: membership is not to be restricted to particular types of institutions, each school is to determine for itself the basis upon which individual students are to be permitted to participate in the work of the organization, faculty controls over the policy of the organization are to be exerted only in the executive committee (and here faculty representation is balanced by that of the students), the conduct of the annual legislative assemblies is to be left entirely in student hands, and the organization is to remain nonpartisan in character.

Today the Intercollegiate Conference on Government is an established educational activity in Pennsylvania. No teacher who has had contact with the organization must be sold on its values as a teaching device. Effective and satisfying participation requires that the student possess a knowledge of parliamentary procedure, of the writing of bills and resolutions, of public speaking techniques, of the operation of the legislative processes, and of contemporary problems. Even more important the annual meetings stress the importance of the social traits which political activity requires. But their greatest value lies in the opportunity which they provide for individual student participation in political processes. Needless to say, the political idealism of many students has been bruised in the rough and tumble of the political struggle at the annual assembly. But most would agree that they are more mature because of their experience and better able to serve their nation as intelligent citizens.

Aspects of Creative Questioning in the Social Sciences

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I. Introduction

There are at least two instructional aspects of the case method of teaching which are well recognized: *First*, well selected cases hold a dramatic interest for the student; they are far more vivid than the dry generalizations of textbook or lecture. *Secondly*, a careful use of the case method trains students to solve practical problems, to obtain and use the sources which are frequently good evidence of contemporary American culture.

The case method aids the student to make his own synthesis of the issues in the case, and causes him to understand something of the fruitfulness of independent thought. As a matter of fact, each case studied throughout the whole course may require a kind of thinking experience that is urged by John Dewey: the

occurrence of difficulty; the definition of the problem to be solved in working out this difficulty; the process of suggesting possible solutions; testing and elaborating the solutions that seem best; verification of the conclusions; and finally, an extension or application of the solution of the given difficulty into a form of knowledge which will enable a solution of other problems with like characteristics. A theory of learning which looks to the case method ot questioning for useful fulfillment may be initiated from the following postulates:

1. *The available sources must be of interest to the student.* He will know that the evidence will become more meaningful to him, if he gives ample application.

2. *The actual learning process requires the student to think for himself in terms of the situation, for learning is advanced by the interaction of the ideas of people.* The study of cases, regardless of the acute issues under consideration, remains a better basis of learning than the offerings of simple materials carefully arranged in simple statements.

3. *Learning is affected not only by the psychological arrangement of the material but also by the stimulating efforts of the teacher and group.* Good teaching can magnify the results of faithful student work, while poor teaching prevents the arrival at goals.

4. *Learning is affected by the total environment of the student.* Learning results from the spirit of a joint effort that comes from successful group work. The use of cases has been known to stimulate group discussion as a part of preparation of assignments. A group aids in meeting an emotional problem in a manner which urges maturity. It is through group discussion that the student can learn to change views without feeling he has lost face in respecting the use and ideas of other members of the group. He will surely be stimulated to such action by seeing his valid ideas accepted and used by his peers. A range of goals inherent in the case method may be pinpointed as follows:

a. The competence to arrive at the goal simply, completely, and with less waste than is needed in solving any unknown problem.

b. The competence to analyze a complex situation by identifying the salient factors from the tangled pattern of facts, and estimating their importance in context.

c. The competence to see a need for new factual material and skills needed for solving the new problem at hand.

d. The competence to use new experiences as a test of the validity of ideas already obtained.

e. The competence to use ideas, to test them against the facts of the case, to bring both ideas and materials into fresh combinations, thereby finding ways which may make them suitable for the solution of the case in broader application.

f. The competence to use ideas in theoretical probing.

g. The competence to suspend judgment until needed facts are being found.

h. The competence to communicate thinking to others in such a way as to induce thought.

From the first case the student will use source material rather than somebody's statements about the sources. Each reported case he studies will give him the facts of the case, the contentions of the rival parties, the issues between the parties as developed in their pleadings, the decision of the court on the issue, and the reasons assigned by the court for the decision. Then his reasoning powers are called into play: Is the decision right? Is the reason for the decision sound? He may compare it with other cases which seem to set forth an opposite ruling. Are the two or more decisions really contradictory? Or can they be reconciled? Similar questions suggest themselves as to the reasons given by the courts for the decisions. The teacher's first question is likely to be, Do you agree with the case? Is the judgment right? The student is then face to face with the same question that confronts a judge in every case that comes before him with all of its practical, legislative, and value implications. And cases may be studied in terms of interpersonal adjustments rather than as fixed legal rights.

By patient research and much discussion he extracts from the cases the rules and principles of law and welds them into a harmonious whole in his own writing. Here, too, as Mr. Justice Holmes so clearly demonstrated, the more the

student knows of history and of his political, economic, social and moral environment, the more likely his decision is to be correct. Again, the more comprehensive his grasp of life more effective will be his work in the case at hand. Such attainment, however, may depend upon two very important provisos: First, he must be able to put his knowledge to practical use in his reasoning, and secondly, he must be able to express himself. The cases which are to be used for term reports may contain more intricate problems and a wider range of material. However, cases for class discussion need to be carefully edited with respect to length.

II. Discussion and Conference

The successful use of teaching by discussion is based on a few fundamentals:

1. A reasoned difference of opinion concerning some issue must develop in the class. A case investigation followed by a group discussion reaches marginal results if the facts lead to a single line of reasoning. Rather there must be acceptable alternatives to examine and discuss. It is in the decision-reaching process, not in the limits of the decision, that the essence of the case method finds its fullest meaning.

2. The function of the teacher guiding the discussion into productive channels is a complex activity. The goal of group thinking with a minimum of direction on the teacher's part cannot be reached by withdrawal. Such a goal will come from careful planning and leadership, at times of a subtle type. *All* persons in the room are working on the basic problem.

3. There must be ample resources available. Students may refine their knowledge of techniques as they assemble materials to focus upon the issues of more complex cases. Where experience has shown that false impressions are likely to be formed which reading, instruction, and discussion will not readily remove, notes may be inserted to challenge the attention of the student at once.

4. Time must be set aside to relate generalizations drawn from the discussion of cases to the theory of the problem area. The student should be able to think constructively about the literature he has read toward a goal of being able to write significant material at the same level. Such a goal is not always reached and sometimes not even encouraged. However, the power to deal with theory is certainly part of the competent powers of a well-rounded mind. The usual college class period of an hour is the least that should be allotted for the discussion of a case. A certain amount of probing down blind alleys is to be allowed; and "scuttled ideas" are a normal part of the discussion process.

III. Evaluation

One of the several tasks that educators face today is to narrow the growing chasm between those who, in schools and research centers, study the community and those who, in legislative committees and courts, shape its life. The apparent withdrawal of law schools from schools of social welfare, public administration, and education has led to a corresponding separation of the scientific activity of the groups. The combined effect of these specialized trends has created a scientific no man's land which in turn has become covered by dense semantic weeds. Such a situation has placed undue responsibility upon the social scientist, broadly speaking, in the training of leaders.

The extension of the scope of administrative activity in the United States, and its regulatory effect, have in the opinion of Professor Pekelis been made possible by what he terms the three main, original, and traditional characteristics of the Anglo-American legal technique. The technique has traditionally relied upon the possibility of impersonal action in order to obtain a certain standard of personal behavior; upon the sweeping, penetrating, and generally felt duty of disclosure; and upon the wise exercise of broad discretionary powers. American administration is usually ready to cope with the most complicated and intimate aspects of private life, business or personal, and is backed by strong public opinion in its expectation of material information and substantial compliance.

Most cases are the descriptions of the actual conflict situations in American society; educational jurisprudence may then become a testing ground of the incidence of legal institu-

tions and of the relevance of administrative policy. The number of fundamental legal doctrines is much fewer than commonly supposed by the layman or student. The many different guises in which the same doctrine is making an appearance, and the great extent to which legal treatises are a repetition of each other become the cause of much misapprehension. In his first casebook, Langdell arranged the important cases in chronological form under each selected topic. His colleague, James B. Ames, chose decisions, not for the purpose ot tracing the historical development of ideas, but for stimulating step by step the goal of the student until he grasped the principles of the cases and the reasons for them.

When the Carnegie Foundation began its study of legal education in the United States, it decided that an unbiased evaluation of the case method was needed. Dr. Josef Redlich, professor of law at the University of Vienna, was asked to make the survey. There was nothing comparable to the case method in Europe. While Redlich found certain weaknesses, he believed that they were more than counterbalanced by the inherent soundness of the method. As the method had developed, it laid the main emphasis upon the very aspect of training which the older text-book school had entirely neglected:

> . . . the training of the student in intellectual independence, in individual thinking, in digging out the principles through penetrating analysis of the material found within separate cases: material which contains, all mixed in with one another, both the facts, as life creates them, which generate the law, and at the same time rules of the law itself, component parts of the general system.

In the judgment of Sunderland, a constant study of cases has resulted in giving a distorted outlook as to the purpose of social control by law. If cases are used as an exclusive source of legal principles, they tend to cause students to consider litigation as the normal method by which law operates within society. Such a point of view is distinctly anti-social. The purpose of the law is to enable persons to direct their affairs that no conflicts will arise. Unfortunately, under a limited case system, the student tends to accept the traditional legalistic attitude that a sound system of law must be based on judicial precedent, held together by formal reasoning, and then applied with unfailing uniformity. Hence he goes out of some schools to perpetuate ideas which have long since lost their social use.

While certain schools consider what is next for the case method, a large proportion of the traditional schools have no yet discovered what it was devised to accomplish nor how it can best be used. In new schools it has been employed as a series of illustrative cases; in others as the basis of a lecture course; and in still others as a body of principles which the student is urged to commit to memory on the assumption that in the sum total the cases provide a complete knowledge of the subject. The misuse of the case method has been due in part to the poorly collected case materials, hastily put together at the request of a publishing house and adopted by the teacher or school through the persuasion of book agents. Its abuse is also due to the fact that the instructor can more easily tell students about the case than get them to tell him, just as it is easier for him to ask questions than to encourage students to do the asking by a stimulating discussion.

The Political and Economic Beliefs of Student-Teachers in the Social Studies

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One of the major problems involved in the teaching of the social studies has to do with the particular political and economic viewpoints which teachers bring with them into the classroom. Some of these viewpoints will be stronger than others, but in the main there

will be a viewpoint which will tend to color all teaching. This becomes especially important in the social studies where the social concepts dealt with contribute to the shaping of the social viewpoints of the students. For example, a teacher in a school where authoritarian administration has in part developed in him a measure of distaste for any kind of autocracy, will give one kind of interpretation to authoritarian principles in government, as met with in the social studies, while a teacher in a school where democratic principles of administration obtain will tend to give quite another kind of interpretation.

The viewpoints on social problems which a teacher develops over a period of time may, however, be the result of the accumulation of several different kinds of experiences. What is of paramount importance is not that a teacher has a particular social bias—in fact it may be far worse if he or she hasn't any—but it is important that the teacher be aware of just what this bias is, and take account of it when presenting any topic in which this viewpoint may be especially a factor. Thus, a teacher may hold very pronounced views on immigration or emigration, capitalism and socialism, peace or war, state *vs.* federal jurisdiction, general or special education, yet despite these be able to give a good and fair account of these issues or problems. However, it is more probable that the teacher will be surer of being fair by being aware what is his tendency or bias with respect to any of the questions raised.

Those teachers who have been teaching for some time, will, if they are at all perceptive, in time recognize this factor in their teaching and make allowance for it. However, this may not be true for beginning teachers. Furthermore, for the teacher in training, it is sometimes a problem to draw their prejudices forth in order that by being exposed the student-teacher becomes aware of the necessity for dealing with bias factors, ideals, and opinions —particularly in the social studies.

The Design of the Study

In accordance with the aforementioned observations and the assumptions implicit in the position, the Manly H. Harper Proposition Study was adapted from its American locus to the Canadian scene. This study consists of seventy propositions each having to do with an ideal or opinion bearing on some social aspect. Though not categorized in the original study, the propositions may be classified so as to yield 23 opinions for the field of education; 20 for politics; 19 for economics; and 8 for ethics. For example, Proposition 4 reads: The practice of democracy, as developed in Canada, has no serious or far-reaching defects. Proposition 20 reads: The wage system of industry operates with desirable efficiency in promoting the interest of laborers in the work they are employed to do. Proposition 22 reads: Most students for our high schools should give a larger proportion of their time to the study of ancient languages, in view of the benefit of general mental development and refinement to be derived therefrom. Each proposition is marked by the student either + or — depending upon whether or not he agrees or disagrees with the proposition. No opportunity is provided for holding a decision in abeyance.

The seventy propositions were analyzed and reduced for purposes of classification and scoring to twelve. This classification resulted in the simplification of the original statements, and clarified the position which the students took on each statement.

Though there was no time limit set within which students were required to complete their studies, all of them were able to complete them within forty minutes.

The Harper Social Proposition Study was given to 24 student-teachers in the 1950-51 term, to 20 student-teachers in the 1951-2 term, and to 59 student-teachers in the 1952-3 term.

The Results of the Study

The positions in each of the categories in the following table summarizing the results of the study represent a condensation insofar as education is concerned from 23 to 2; for politics from 20 to 4; for economics from 19 to 5; and, for ethics, from 8 to 1. In each instance the condensation was logically arrived at, and each summary proposition purports to indicate the students' position as reported on the total number of seventy propositions.

The opinions held by the student-teachers

TABLE SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AGREEING WITH SOCIAL STATEMENTS

Statement Percentage for	1951 N=24	1952 N=20	1953 N=59
Education			
1. Citizenship learnings ought not to be indoctrinated	86	82	70
2. Social Studies curricula may be satisfactory	45	49	50
Politics			
3. There ought to be more government control	45	21	31
4. International relations ought to be increased and improved	90	79	74
5. Democracy as practiced in Canada is good	67	60	69
6. People vote on the basis of emotion rather than reason	92	80	81
Economics			
7. Favor government ownership	60	41	59
8. Believe services have been rendered for fortunes	36	48	45
9. Believe employers do share with employees	52	77	65
10. Believe in cooperative ownership	54	35	42
11. Believe publicity is favorable to wealth	72	52	55
Ethics			
12. Social action ought to be governed by reason rather than by belief	70	60	65

as indicated by the summary propositions suggest that in so far as education is concerned the 1951, 1952, and 1953 findings are very similar, that the three groups tend toward a liberal attitude in the teaching of the social studies, and that there is a dominance of idealistic views of the body politic.

There appears to be a measure of agreement among all groups as to the restriction of government controls. The fact that well over 50% of all groups believe that there is too much government control—in whatever field considered—indicates a kind of thinking which can easily be reflected in the classroom. The extent to which all groups indicated a belief in the idea that international relations ought to be increased and improved suggests not only the idealism present in student-teachers as a body, but suggests further the idea which student-teachers have of the place of international organizations, or sovereignty and of the individual powers of governments in the play for universal peace. Of real significance is the fact that approximately two-thirds of each group considered democracy as practiced in Canada good. Where democratic institutions are the subject of so large a part of the social studies the attitudes which teachers of the social studies have to democracy are of real importance. Approximately one-third of the teachers, however, do not consider democracy as practised in Canada to be good. The extent to which they are critical, however, is not revealed by the study. A part of the aforementioned attitude toward democracy, however, may be explained in part by the ideas which the student-teachers appear to hold of the way in which people vote. The fact that 80% or over of all three groups believed that people vote on the basis of emotion rather than reason suggests that democratic practices are bedevilled by emotional rather than rational factors. It would appear from inspection of student-teachers' beliefs that their teaching of political affairs in the social studies will be in a measure governed by (a) a critical attitude towards government practices and by (b) a critical attitude towards peoples in and out of government. The fact that there is a critical attitude present indicates, furthermore, that the social studies will not be taught in an atmosphere of blind acceptance of the *status quo*.

In the area of economics the student-teachers appear to be less definite in their beliefs than in the realm of politics. For whatever reason this may be true, there appears to be an almost uniform reduction in the extent of agreement in each group. Over half believe in government ownership of the means of production. Not half of the students in each group believe that services have been rendered for fortunes. On the other hand, over half of each group believe that employers share with their employees. By contrast with these last two beliefs not too many believed in cooperative ownership, indicating that improvement of the present pattern of economic organization rather than its radical alteration was held by the groups. An indication of the general attitude toward the position of wealth in the economy is suggested by the belief on the part of over 50% of all groups that publicity is favorable to wealth.

The statement that social action ought to be governed by reason rather than by belief indicates that in so far as each of the groups is concerned a rational approach is necessary in areas of education of politics, and of economics. The fact that over 60% of all groups so believed suggests that there is not too great a recognition of the fact of emotions in human

organizations. This is in part supported by the fact that there is a predominant idealism present in all beliefs held by student-teachers. It would appear that in the teaching of the social studies a certain critical position may be assumed by student-teachers which can color all attitudes towards the subjects under consideration.

The evidence obtained from student-teachers' answers to the Harper Proposition study as modified for the Canadian scene appears to be that there is present a measure of idealism and of ethical position which can preclude a realistic appraisal of the social and economics concepts with which they are dealing. The fact that these student-teachers give evidence of a healthy criticism safeguards the learnings of students in the social studies from blind indoctrination, and from coming to believe that all that is is especially good. This can be true when the student-teacher is called upon to relate past to present, or to explain the present in terms of the past, or show how the present has come to be what it is. Of perhaps more importance is the fact implicit that a rationalistic approach is the one to obtain in schools rather than a treatment of the emotional factors involved. There would appear to be necessary a re-emphasis of the place of emotion in education, and of its particular place in the social studies. It is one thing to look upon matters of social education as being wholly submissive to rationalistic treatment. It is quite another thing to recognize that the nature of society is compounded of emotion as well as reason. In view of the purpose of the social studies to prepare good citizens it is necessary to recognize that good citizens, whether economically or politically considered, are products of emotional as well as rational climates. If these beliefs as recorded by the student-teachers are indicative of the background which they bring to the teaching of the social studies it would appear to be well to have student-teachers become aware of the significance of these beliefs, and of the more important fact of the way in which they would be interpreting the materials of the social studies in the light of these beliefs.

The Teachers' Page

Hyman M. Boodish

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Whither Secondary Education was the theme of the conference on Secondary Education sponsored by Teachers' College, Temple University, January 23, 1953. It was one of the most stimulating and challenging series of discussions on education at which I have had the privilege to be present.

The meetings were attended by representatives from Temple University, leading educators—superintendents, principals, counselors and teachers—from the various school systems in and around Philadelphia, and fourteen visiting teachers (relatively young men and women) from Germany, who had been studying American education in the metropolitan and suburban areas of Philadelphia.

The conference was initiated by a luncheon-meeting during which five of the German teachers presented both their impressions of American education and specific questions (embracing broad areas of education) which served as the basis for subdividing the large group into smaller discussion meetings.

The five areas were:

I What is the emerging role of the teachers in the *American society?*

II How broad is the concept of citizenship for which the American school is educating its youth?

III Is the American secondary school neglecting the superior youth in its effort to raise the level of mass education?

IV Is the teaching process too highly mechanized?

V Is the absence of physical resources (materials, supplies, etc.) a deterrent in improving the educative process?

The German teachers expressed a great deal of enthusiasm for American education. They were impressed by the fact that education in our country is the concern not only of teachers and students but of the entire lay public. They were impressed by our many museums, rich libraries, our interest in research, our fine school buildings, and the vast opportunities afforded by the rich equipment and supplies. Europe is so poor in comparison! They felt genuinely enriched by their experiences, particularly because they were living with families rather than in "dorms" or hotels. They showed keen power of observation regarding many aspects of our education, pinpointing both the strengths and weaknesses of our school systems.

The following is a brief summation of the discussions of the five major areas stated above:

The Emerging Role of the Teacher

The German teachers raised several questions in connection with the topic. They wondered about the real influences of the teacher upon the students; about the teachers' relative position in our society; of the pressures acting upon the teachers which may stereotype their teaching. They wondered, also, whether our general tendency toward "lack of toughness" and emphasis on play activities fail to reflect the real world for our students. Specifically, one of the teachers asked:

"Is it possible to involve all important aspects of life into playing, which is simplified?"

"Is there a danger in keeping students in fictional situations too long?"

The group which discussed this area agreed that the teacher does not hold the place in our society which we believe he should. This is due, in part, to (1) his economic compensation and (2) the fact that the other professions have higher entrance standards. The group, however, did not believe that we foster a sense of unreality in our students. For foreign visitors to understand and appreciate the full impact of our systems of education on our young people it would take *more living* in our country.

Breadth of Concept of Citizenship

The young teachers from Germany were excitedly impressed with much of what goes on in our schools in connection with training in citizenship. However, in the main they wondered whether there is not a lack of emphasis on "the unity of mankind" by an absence of courses in world history and geography and the teaching of foreign languages. They felt that our stress on American history and the neglect of the broader culture of the world breeds a kind of provincialism.

The group which reported on this meeting and the general discussion which followed expressed considerable sympathy with the questions raised. Several factors were mentioned as possible causes for the relative lack of teaching about world history, geography and foreign languages. These were: (1) our traditional tendency toward isolationism growing out of our geographic position and historical heritage; (2) our tendency to be materialistic or pragmatic; (3) our reaction to the traditionalist program of education which we felt to be constricting in its effects. However, we recognize today that the world is shrinking and that there is a need for broadening the cultural curriculum. The current efforts to introduce the study of foreign languages in the lower grades is one indication of this change.

Emphasis on Mass Education—Neglect of Superior Youth

Some of the specific questions raised by the German visitors in this area were:

1. Is American secondary education emphasizing interest at the sacrifice of effort?
2. What value should be given to qualities of perseverence, thoroughness, dependability, clear thinking?
3. Are the concepts of "a happy youth" and a thorough training according to adult standards necessarily contradictory?
4. Can a society that neglects the intellectual challenge of its members continue for long to command a position of leadership among societies?

The group discussing this area felt, in general, that the problems raised were less serious than implied in the questions raised by the German teachers. We do, as a society, tend to shy away from too much selectivity. Although our ideal is to give advantage to everyone, there are many informal activities which provide for the training of superior youth. With respect to our "overemphasis" on pupil interests and "happy students," the reaction was that here, also, there is the matter of interpretation—which can be made correctly by foreign visitors only by longer contact with American life. Furthermore, the group did not believe that there is necessarily anything wrong or immoral for young people to be happy and to like school.

The Mechanization of Teaching

In this area the young men and women from Germany wondered:

(1) whether there was sufficient quantity and quality of contact between the the teacher and the pupil to insure a wholesome influence on the latter.

(2) whether the teacher derived sufficient psychic value out of teaching, since it is so mechanized.

(3) about the effect of objective tests and norms on teaching efficiency.

(4) about the effect of specialization on teaching.

(5) how character education can really be an aim of secondary education unless the teacher assumes a direct responsibility for the student's growth and personality development.

The group which reported on this area felt that educators in America are aware of and concerned with the dangers of overmechanization. It was felt that the dangers are greater where schools are large, classes big and schedules rigid. There have been attempts to counter effects of overmechanization by providing special service, such as counseling, clubs and psychological referrals. There was some feeling expressed that in many respects, the fact that the student is not rigidly assigned to one teacher, with whom he has continuous contact, allows for a development of less rigidity, less dependence and greater independence of thinking and acting.

With respect to the use of objective tests, the group again recognized the existence of restrictions to teaching efficiency, if the tests are used unwisely. It was felt that whatever dangers do exist can be eliminated by using the tests primarily for diagnostic and screening purposes, and by developing reasonable standards based on individual pupil abilities and needs.

Finally, with respect to character training, the group felt that character education is an intangible goal and one that is the responsibility of all teachers and all aspects of the school program, as well as the responsibility of many community agencies. The school is continuously being expected to assume a greater share of this responsibility, but again it is the total school's responsibility and not that of any individual teacher.

Physical Resources and the Educative Process

Although the German visitors were impressed by the richness of our physical resources in education, they wondered

(1) whether the American teacher is not too dependent on them for his teaching.

(2) whether they do not stifle the creative initiative of both teachers and pupils.

The group which discussed this area challenged the implications. It felt that the physical equipment aids and improves American education; and, that where such equipment is lacking, the ingenious teacher can and often does provide home-made equipment.

Summary

A few additional points of summary were given by Dr. Philip Koopman, Superintendent of Schools, Lower Merion Township, Ardmore, Pennsylvania.

1. Our college entrance requirements have been, to a large degree, responsible for much of our secondary school curricula (although this influence has been considerably lessened, with respect to non-college preparatory curricula, there is the implied question of whether college requirements are still too rigid.)
2. It is difficult for foreign students to interpret what we do, particularly as it relates to our concept of the psychology of learning. We lean more to the Gestalt view of

learning rather than the faculty psychology school of learning. We believe that absence of conflict, where the learner is accepted, is more conducive to learning than "toughness."

3. The problem of the continuity of teacher-pupil relationship raises a fundamental question, but it is not yet a proven question.

4. It is an over-assumption that we do not have rugged and tough standards. Where necessary, such as entrance into certain institutions, high standards must be met. In addition, in certain communities (Philadelphia was cited as an example) vocational schools are no longer the "dumping grounds" for the intellectually incompetent. Instead, definite standards for trade and technical training are required to be met.

5. We are concerned in this country with a generalized pattern of citizenship—one that is functional in all areas of living rather than in one specific field. The emerging comprehensive high school, for example, provides both for selectivity (based on ability and vocational interest) and for general citizenship training.

In a sense, the whole conference was both a critical evaluation and a defense of American Secondary Education. The concluding phase of the conference was a dinner followed by a kind of farewell (expressions of thanks and singing of folk songs) by the German teachers to their American hosts—Temple University and the families whose homes they shared.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

Teaching Citizenship Through Films—A fine annotated bibliography on citizenship activities of childhood and youth. 10 cents. N. E. A. Citizenship Committee, N. E. A., 1201 16 St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

FILMS

Sudan. 20 minutes. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

Shows problems facing administration of Anglo-Egyptian Sudan; why Egypt fears control of upper reaches of Egypt; British and Egyptian viewpoints.

Task Ahead. 20 minutes. Sale or Rental. Film Division, United Nations, New York, N. Y.

Depicts Unesco accomplishments since 1945, and what still lies ahead.

Inside Story. 11 minutes. Sale or Rental. Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

Shows Massachusetts efforts at penal reform.

Powering America's Progress. 25 minutes. Color. Bituminous Coal Institute, Southern Bldg., Washington, D. C.

Depicts coal mining, processing, uses and by-products.

Montana and the Sky. 20 minutes. Color. Montana Aeronautics Commission, Helena, Mont.

On the surface just a story of many uses of planes in Montana. Woven in is information about the state, people, its history.

Who are the People of America? 1 reel, Sound. Color or black and white. Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago, Ill.

A story that explains where Americans orginally came from, how they fought together, how they plowed the land, and built the cities, and how they are still building to create a finer America.

School Rules: How They Help Us. 1 reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Sale or Rental. Coronet Films.

Film demonstrates rules in action—on the

street, the basketball court, in the school halls and library. School rules help to make life smoother and more pleasant in and out of school.

Understanding the Map. 1 reel. Sale. Young America Films, Inc. 18 E. 41 St., New York 17, N. Y.

An animated film giving an introduction to maps and their uses.

Joe Davis—American. Sound. Rent. 13 minutes. CIO Dept. of Education, CIO, 718 Jackson Pl. N. W., Washington, D. C.

Film deals with job discrimination and points up the need for a national Fair Employment Practices Act with enforcing powers.

The Green Girdle. 1 reel. 11 minutes. Rental, or sale. British Information Services.

Shows how parks in England are like islands of peace in overcrowded cities. London is seen as a good example of overcrowded sections.

White Continent. 2 reels. 20 minutes. Rental, or sale. British Information Services.

Shows a joint expedition (Britain, Norway, Sweden) off to Queen Maud's Land. The difficulties encountered are seen clearly.

Gates of Power. 2 reels. 19 minutes. Rental, or sale. British Information Services.

Film tells of British achievements in the field of hydro-electric power. Tells how this power is harnessed, and explains some of the difficulties which have to be overcome.

The Law of Demand and Supply. 1 reel. Sound. Color. Sale or rental. Coronet Films. Chicago, Ill.

Through the story of Tim who is in the bicycle rental business, students are taught how the law of supply and demand affects business.

Fallen Eagle. 21 minutes. Color. Sale. Alan Shilin Productions, 450 W. 56 St., New York, N. Y.

Presents Sioux Indians, their former greatness and power as contrasted with their present poverty and problems.

Giant of the North. 21 minutes. Color. Alan Shilin Productions.

Gives us Alaska, its vast resources, its role in America's defense.

What Makes Us Tick. 12 minutes. Color. Animated cartoon. Sponsored by N. Y. Stock Exchange. Modern Talking Picture Service, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

Tells basic facts about the Stock Exchange and how it works.

Opportunity U. S. A. 25 minutes. Sponsored by the Investment Bankers Assn. of America, Modern Talking Picture Service.

Shows how American business and the American standard of living have grown, financed by the savings of the people.

The New Paul Bunyan. 29 minutes. Sponsored by the Weyerhauser Forest Products. Modern Talking Picture Service.

Describes modern lumbering and its constant effort to protect and rebuild American forest resources. Also shows lumbering processes, milling, making of by-products, protection of forests and re-seeding.

Filmstrips

The Westward Migration. 113 frames. Sale. Pictorial Events, 597 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, N. Y.

Revitalizes the great spirit that made America. It is a blazing record of struggle against Indian attacks and the elements.

Wells Fargo. 119 frames. Sale. Pictorial Events.

Shows territorial expansion; discovery of gold in California; overland mail; routes to gold fields; life among the pioneers.

The Iron Horse. 93 frames. Pictorial Events.

Depicts the making of America as you see the Transcontinental Railroad reach the climax in linking the Atlantic with the Pacific.

France in the 18th Century. 56 frames. Sale. Life Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

A vivid account of that period of intellectual and social upheaval in France which has been called the Age of Enlightenment. See the conflict between the old Regime and the new worship of reason and tolerance.

The American Revolution. 62 frames. Life Filmstrips.

Tells the whole story from the earliest protests against Britain's colonial policies to the inauguration of our first President.

Heritage of the Maya. 48 frames. Sale. Life Filmstrips.

Reveals the evidence of a native culture that had flourished in Yucatan for centuries before

the earliest explorers reached our shores of America.

The Middle Ages. 49 frames. Sale. Life Filmstrips.

Reproductions of sculpture, architecture, tapestries, stained glass, illuminated manuscripts, etc., bring to life men and women of the Middle Ages.

Age of Exploration. 50 frames. Life Filmstrips.

Follows the great explorers into strange new lands, and suggests something of the wonder and excitement of that age.

The Atom. 55 frames. Sale. Life Filmstrips.

A simple and understandable explanation of the structure and behavior of the atom.

Birmingham. 24 frames. Black and white. Sale. Study Guide. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Shows the rise of one of Britain's oldest cities since the advent of the Industrial Revolution. Now it is one of the great industrial centers.

Community Development in West Africa. 21 frames. Captioned. Black and white. Sale, with study guide. British Information Services.

Community development is bringing social progress to West Africa in a way the people can understand.

Century of Progress in Communications. 21 frames. Captioned. Black and white. Sale, with study guide. British Information Services.

Covers a period in which science conquered distance, speeding communication from what it was in the days of the mail coach to the swift services covering the world today.

North Africa in Ferment. 58 frames. Black and white. Teacher's Guide. Office of Educational Activities, *The New York Times,* Times Sq., New York, N. Y.

24 million people live in North Africa today, in the area between the Atlantic and Egypt. Outlined are the economic activities of these people, the movement for greater independence, and the rise of nationalism.

Radio

The U. N. is My Beat. NBC. 11:30-11:45 A. M. Sunday.

Clark M. Eichelberger, Director of A. A. U. N., discusses with guests pertinent happenings of the week.

Meet the Press. 10.00-10:30 P. M. Sunday, NBC.

Noted government personalities are interviewed by a panel of newspaper men.

Cavalcade of America. NBC. 8:00-8:30 P. M. Tuesday.

Dramatized stories of famous and little known people who helped to make America great.

Capital Cloakroom. CBS. 10:05-10:30 P. M. Friday.

Newsmen interview Washington officials and legislators on an important national issue of the week.

Report from the Pentagon. 7:15-7:30 P. M. Saturday.

Features important interviews with Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps personalities who have just reported to the Pentagon from posts abroad.

Television

Youth Wants to Know. NBC-TV. 1:00-1:30 P. M. Sunday.

High school and college students quiz prominent Washington person each week.

N. Y. Times Forum. Dumont. 6:00-6:30 P. M. Sunday.

Panel of high school students and an adult guest in a discussion of a topic of current interest.

Cavalcade of America. (alternate Wednesdays). 8:30-9:00 P.M. NBC-TV Wednesday.

A filmed series covering the panorama of American history with highlights and little known episodes from the lives of actual historical American personages who best exemplify the highest principles of the American way of life.

News and Comment

R. T. Solis-Cohen
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Plight of America's Migrants

Most studies of migratory agricultural labor stress the hazard of the alien farm laborer in our midst.

However, Varden Fuller surveys the whole problem of migrant farm laborers—citizen and alien, family groups of migrants as well as single males—in "No Work Today!" (*Public Affairs Pamphlet* No. 190 published by Public Affairs Committee 22 E. 38th Street, New York City, $.25).

He points out that demand and supply of farm labor is rarely balanced and is not subject to any systematic organization. It is therefore usually in a chaotic state.

This situation results in anxieties to the migrant with or without his family—about half of whom are U. S. citizens—to the farm employer and to the local health authorities. The migrants have no certainty that in a given area there will be a crop to work and that they will get the work they expect, even if there is a good crop. The farm employer regards citizen migratory workers as an uncertain and irresponsible labor supply.

The local health officials look upon the influx of migrants as a menace to their communities, aggravating health problems and overtaxing community health facilities. Of course, a large influx of migrant children causes an educational problem to the schools and prevents the children from having any continuity in their schooling.

Migrants are employed chiefly in large areas growing fruits, vegetables, cotton and sugar beets. They are paid such low wages that whole families, including small children, must work together.

The migrants suffer long periods of idleness but receive no Federal aid. "All . . . except farm laborers . . ." are provided for in the Federal statutes, whereas state and county laws state that "Non-residents shall be ineligible . . ." for assistance.

All migrants do not have an equally difficult time. Puerto Ricans who are citizens and aliens under contract are taken care of in agreements. However, citizens of Mexican origin, Negro citizens, some "Okies" and alien Mexicans—"Wetbacks"—who entered the United States illegally and furtively receive no protection.

Mr. Fuller suggests that in order to avert a permanent problem a sound policy should provide:

"(1) assurance that those drawn into the migratory streams do not become permanently absorbed therein, that they have maximum opportunities to settle down and enter more attractive occupation;

"(2) assurance that we do not develop a permanent cancer in the national structure that feeds on the economically unfortunate from home and abroad."

In suggesting practical remedial action, Mr. Fuller suggests that the most obvious and urgent needs be alleviated; that the self-reliance of migrants be promoted and their skills increased to aid them find better jobs; and that a public policy be adopted and vigorously adhered to that will "raise the standards and conditions of work in migratory farm employment and thereby eliminate the dependence of farm employers on poverty at home and misfortune abroad as the foundation and recruitment of their labor supply!"

Emphasis is also put by the author on making certain that the aliens under contract brought in for temporary employment, do not actually compete with and displace domestic labor.

The pamphlet is illustrated attractively and concludes with a brief bibliography on migrant farm labor.

The Disadvantaged

The article bearing this title is found in the *N. E. A. Journal* for January 1953. Its author, Howard A. Dawson, has a concern for the education of the children of migrant agricultural labor and of rural non-farm people, which includes Negroes, Indians, and Spanish-Americans.

Of the migrants Mr. Dawson says they come from agricultural areas of low income, over-population, and excess labor supply. They suffer from insufficient annual earnings, illiteracy or near illiteracy, "high infant mortality rates, high morbidity rates and exclusion from the benefits of minimum wage laws, fair labor standards, unemployment insurance, unemployment compensation, workmen's compensation, and old-age insurance."

The children of migrants are unwelcome in many communities. After they have served their purpose the migrants are often compelled to move on. Usually there are no school home visitors and attendance officers are mere police officers.

Rural non-farm people engage in mining, lumbering, manufacture of furniture and lumbering products, and in cotton-textile industries. School facilities in some areas are poor.

Although Negroes have suffered from legal, extra-legal and social segregation, and fewer occupations are available to them than to whites, they have made tremendous progress in the last 85 years.

The education of Indians who are wards of the Federal Government is an example of our failure to carry out our treaties made with the Indians. The children need teachers trained to teach Indians and they also require sufficient contact with English-speaking people to learn the American language.

Spanish-American children in the United States need teachers who can speak their language to help them adjust to the American scene.

Mr. Dawson concludes that we know what to do to solve these problems. He believes that the nation owes these disadvantaged children a debt and that payment should not be postponed.

Migrant Conference in Pennsylvania

The December, 1952, issue of *The American Child* was concerned with the education of migrant children. Some of the topics considered include summer schools especially adapted to the needs of these children, getting the migrant children into school and making the school experience beneficial for them. They also should have teachers with special preparation to minister to their needs.

The Social Studies in the Elementary School

At the elementary school level the social studies include not only materials from current affairs, history, sociology, anthropology, economics, geography and civics but also from science, health and social living.

Wrightstone in "Evaluation of Social Studies" (*The Packet*, Fall 1952, Vol. 7 No. 2.) presents a chart showing the major objectives of the social studies, matched with the formal and informal methods of evaluating them. These are classified under six headings: information, work and study skills, interests, attitudes, critical thinking and personal-social adaptability.

In the last named category are the more recent methods of evaluation, which include the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scales, the California Test of Personality, sociometric methods of friendship choices or "Guess Who" types and informal teacher-made rating scales or anecdotal records of behavior.

At the end of this article are some suggested related texts. Among these is *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools.* Revised by Edgar Bruce Wesley and Mary A. Adams. N. Y. : D. C. Heath $4.25.

An illustration from Wesley and Adams is shown on page 9 of this issue of *The Packet.*

As a supplement and complement to this text many elementary school teachers regard as very helpful John U. Michaelis: *Social Studies for Children in A Democracy.* New York: Prentice Hall, $4.75 (with a discount to teachers of 15%, making a net price of $4.04).

Other aids which are of great assistance to the busy elementary teacher are the illustrations in *The Grade Teacher,* such as sugges-

tions for valentines for February, safety lessons for winter, and ideas for industrial arts and bulletin boards and for dramatic play. For March, 1953, *The Grade Teacher* provides an excellent annotated list of visual aids, suggested units, posters and designs and plays.

The *Instructor* is another standby for the elementary teacher. Excellent pictures, such as those of Benjamin Franklin and President Eisenhower, provide splendid sources for bulletin boards and illustrative material for units. A play on Benjamin Franklin in the January, 1953 issue can be used as written or can provide the story for a re-written simpler play adapted to a lower learning level. Brotherhood Week is represented by an article on "The Capacity to Understand Differences" by Rabbi Philip S. Bernstein.

For elementary teachers in Pennsylvania still other useful aids are Bulletins 233 A and 233 B. The title of the first is "Local Participation in State Wide Revision of the Elementary School Curriculum," published in 1946 by the Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

The second Bulletin is entitled: "The Elementary Course of Study. The Interim Report 1949."

Book Reviews and Book Notes

David W. Harr

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

Selected Readings in Modern Economics. By A. Isaacs, C. W. McKee, and R. E. Slesinger. The Dryden Press, 1952. New York: Pp. xviii, 700. $4.00.

One of the most common criticisms levelled against the principles of economics course is that it is overly theoretical or unrealistic. There is undoubtedly much to be said on behalf of this charge. One method of coping with this criticism has been to accompany the principles of economics text with a book of factual economics readings such as this volume under review. This collection of readings follows the usual pattern of providing selections for each of the major fields covered by the standard economics texts. In addition to the usual readings relating to production, money and banking, prices, income distribution and international economics, there are selections covering such newer topics as national-income analysis, government in business, social security, and comparative economic systems.

The readings in this volume have been carefully selected, and should prove to be very useful to those instructors who wish to supplement their basic economic theory course with concrete materials relating to various aspects of the actual economic system. In some cases fewer but longer selections might have been more appropriate. This reviewer is quite sympathetic with the desire to make basic courses in economics more realistic by turning to volumes like *Selected Readings in Modern Economics.* He prefers, however, to modernize economic theory itself rather than to rely mainly upon supplementing outmoded or unrealistic theory with concrete economics readings.

Allan G. Gruchy

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Extracurricular Activities. (Third Edition). By Harry C. McKown. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1952. Pp. xvi, 666. $5.00.

When it first appeared, back in the twenties, McKown's *Extracurricular Activities* was a pioneer in the field. Revised in 1937 and again in 1952, it still is one of the leaders. This Third Edition doubtless will be accepted gladly by McKown fans and may even win new friends.

Harry C. McKown no longer teaches at the University of Pittsburgh where for many years he wrote, taught, and preached the doctrine of extra-curricular activities. Having become a citizen of Illinois he now directs his energies to lecturing and to the editing of an excellent

little journal—*School Activities*—thus he still carries forward his dedication to what formerly were considered "extra-class" activities.

For indeed this field of student activities has, within twenty-five years, completed a cycle. What at first was extra-curricular became co-curricular and now is fast assuming a status within the curriculum. In fact, any distinction is becoming harder and harder to make for there is not now the hard and sharp line of subject matter which once offered a logical separation. It may be said that Professor McKown (and others) have won their fight.

Nevertheless, it is good that this well-used old textbook has been brought up to date by the inclusion of new materials and especially a goodly number of brand new references from the periodical literature for, as mentioned above, the field changes fast—almost too fast for a textbook account to offer a real approximation of the contemporary practice.

Moreover, it would be impossible to teach or study Extracurricular Activities without reference to the current magazines of which *School Activities* and *The Clearing House* are possibly the most useful. Although most teachers naturally would seek out pertinent practices and illustrations from the journals, it does save time and energy to have them in convenient form in a textbook and thus allow the teacher to conserve some of the hours necessary for the making of long mimeographed lists of syllabus materials.

Although quite probably too lengthy already, this reviewer advises the inclusion in future editions of experiences in camping, problems related to social stratification, and suggestions for tying school and community more closely through co-ordination of programs. These are areas in which McKown has said little—they are, of course, extremely pertinent and significant to the present stage of our culture and the progress of American education.

However, regardless of its length and the omissions cited, it may be foreseen that McKown's *Extracurricular Activities* will be a very proper handbook for the many young teachers going out into teaching for the first time with little idea of the problems and duties of the extracurricular sponsorship which they will find so suddenly thrust upon them. It is thus suggested that principals and others recommend it for their use or make extracurricular activities the basis for in-service training or workshop meetings.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK
Willamette University
Salem, Oregon

The Pageant of Netherlands History. By Adriaan J. Barnouw. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1952. Pp. xi, 370. $4.50.

Although a less pretentious work, and bringing the story of the Low Countries down to the present, this timely volume is somewhat reminiscent of Motley's *Rise of the Dutch Republic*. The book will be welcomed by those seeking more than a superficial knowledge of the course of events among the Netherlanders, and the influence of these events upon the world at large. This influence, as the author shows, has been considerable, and has affected society on all continents.

The publishers' announcement, among other things, asserts that with regard to the Dutch and Belgians—"Their manners and customs, their beliefs and labors, their achievements in the fields of learning, letters and the arts are conveyed in lucid flowing narrative."

Lucidity, however, is not invariably in evidence. An example of this lack occurs in the Preface where the author attempts to define the term "culture." Apparently, he is unable to say that, for his purpose, "culture" is a term closely akin to the word "cultivation," and that there are three roughly-defined stages—savagery (the primitive stage), barbarism, and civilization.

Dr. Barnouw appears to use the term "Holland" in two senses. Sometimes his "Holland" is a province, and at other times the name includes the Netherlands in their entirety.

Particularly informative is the discussion of the conflict which went on in the Low Countries at the time of the Protestant revolt. As one of the outcomes of this struggle, the southern provinces remained loyal to the papal authority, and ultimately, formed the Kingdom of Belgium. Many readers will be more than a little amazed to learn that about one-third of the Netherlanders are Catholics today.

"Upon the Seven Seas" is the title of the seventh chapter—a chapter which readers in general will pronounce best of all. As might be supposed, the theme here is the story of the achievements of the Netherlanders in that era when they traveled wherever wind and sail would take them. Writes Dr. Barnouw:

> From 1670 on, the East India Company encouraged the emigration of settlers to South Africa. . . . Thus Capetown became the fork where the sea-borne migration from the Netherlands branched in a two-fold direction, one-half proceeding on east across the Indian Ocean, the other leaving the ship for the covered wagon. (189)

Those taking to the covered wagon became known as "Boers," or "trek (migrant) Boers." Continuing in the author's words:

> The trek Boer's home was the open veld, his land of promise the unexplored beyond. . . . He longed for no return to the old world. . . . The sole heirlooms of the past to which he clung were the Dutch Bible and the Dutch language, which, greatly simplified by the elimination of flexional endings, is still spoken throughout South Africa. (190)

Vastly different were conditions in the East Indies where Netherlanders found domicile as traders. Here they encountered an ancient civilization, self-assured and complacent.

One of the outstanding characteristics of the Netherlander is adaptability. Even Peter Stuyvesant demonstrated this trait when, upon the appearance of the English fleet in New Amsterdam harbor, he acted in harmony with the maxim that discretion is the better part of valor.

The resaercher will welcome the four pages reference work, it will readily find a place on entitled, "Suggestions for Further Reading."

This book is one to read and re-read. As a the reading lists of certain college courses.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Oregon

America, Land of Freedom. By Hartman, Ball, Nevins. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952. Pp. xxxiv, 720. $3.60

To Americans who subscribe to the Turner thesis of American history, this textbook is a

welcome and worthy addition to the many new books now appearing on the market, for two of the eleven units into which the book is divided, are entitled Westward to the Mississippi, and From Sea to Shining Sea. In most of the other units the significance of the frontier in our history is given due emphasis, as it should be. The struggles of the early pioneers were revealing "luminously the course of universal history."

Refreshing it is to feel the fidelity of the authors in maintaining throughout the book the continuity of development of our history from primitive conditions to the complex national and international forces at work in American life today.

The authors have wisely refrained from stressing too much the "what" and too little on the "why" in their story of America.

In another sense an adequate and satisfying balance of treatment has been preserved. The interaction of economic, political, and social forces in contact with "peculiar geographic factors" is an intriguing characteristic of this book. To the student the barren waste of too much of the political and constitutional in a single volume is rightfully avoided.

Two units, One World, and Working for a World of Peace and Security are illuminating in the story of our abandoning isolation for an aggressive though reluctant assumption of a world leadership. Here the essential unity of history has been maintained.

The study helps at the end of each chapter are admirable. The charts, the time lines, the maps, the vocabulary, and names to identify should stimulate students to explore on their own the many fascinating trails in our history.

The length and weight of this excellent textbook make it somewhat formidable. However, the carefully selected and vivid illustrations, coupled with a simplicity and charm of style are more than compensating for the size of the book.

GARTON S. GREENE
Germantown High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Lincoln Finds A General: Grant's First Year in the West. By Kenneth P. Williams. New York: Macmillan. Pp. 585. $7.50.

About two years ago a mathematics professor at the University of Indiana staggered the world of American historians with one of the most authoritative and interesting studies in American military history to appear in many seasons. His first two volumes on the history of the Northern armies during the Civil War were highly praised, much awarded (a National Book Award citation, the gold medal of the Society for the Libraries of New York University, the Lincoln Diploma of Honor of Lincoln Memorial University, and designation as "Lincoln Book of the Year"), and widely read.

Now Professor Williams turns to the war in the West, and concentrates his attention upon the first year of war in that theatre. He turns to Galena, Illinois, tracing the events in the West which were eventually to carry a retired captain of the regular army to the position of general-in-chief. This was, as the author points out, a "war of the Rivers"—the Mississippi, the Cumberland and the Tennessee. The volume is built around those three rivers, strategically as well as geographically. Here are masterful characterizations of great military leaders, of Halleck and McClellan and Buell, of Wallace and Thomas. Here are the succession of engagements and maneuvers which were to bring success and fame to Grant, climaxing in the bloody battle of Shiloh.

No student of the Civil War or of the whole area of American military history can ignore this book; no lover of action and of fine prose will wish to ignore it. Teachers at the high school level will find many students who will be fascinated by portions of this book. Its usefulness as an "interest rouser" is great.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN
State University of New York
Cortland, New York

Pattern For Freedom. A History of the United States. By Myrtle Roberts. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The John C. Winston Company, 1953. Pp. xxxii, 680. $3.00.

In this new book just off the press we have one of the most interesting and fascinating American History textbooks that have been written for young people in recent years.

The story of the history of the United States is divided into eight units which are subdivided into thirty-two chapters. The illustrations are well chosen and at the beginning of each unit show a home of the period discussed in the unit.

The study aids are well developed, and the reading lists provide a variety of exciting material for the superior pupils.

This text includes an understanding of the geographic, political, economic and social history of the United States and will hold the attention and interest of young people.

DAVID W. HARR
Lincoln High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Intergroup Relations in Teacher Education. By Lloyd Allen Cook. Washington, D. C.: The American Council on Education, 1951. Pp xvi, 272. $3.75.

Subtitled "An Analytical Study of Intergroup Education in Colleges and Schools in the United States" this volume represents Number II of a significant research in intergroup relationships. Based on a co-operative effort by twenty-four teacher education institutions during the years 1945-1949 to develop a human relations emphasis in their programs, this attack on the problem represents concurrence with the recent findings of educational anthropology in the areas of social stratification and class, group, and "racial" discrimination in the United States.

Volume I, *College Programs and Intergroup Relations,* described the projects and activities carried on by the participating colleges. In this sequel to the basic setting described above an attempt is made to analyze and interpret the whole field of intergroup relations both in the light of the College Study and through the use of other contemporary data.

The total program was a project of the Council on Co-operation in Teacher Education —an organization consisting of representation from twenty national educational bodies co-operating actively in experimental planning, studies, conferences, clinics, and other operations for the improvement of teacher education. This particular project was supported by a grant from the National Conference of

Christians and Jews and was directed by Dr. Lloyd Allen Cook, Chairman, Department of Educational Sociology, Wayne University, whose recent publication, *A Sociological Approach to Education,* deals cogently with many of the chief problems involved.

The program itself, after a general orientation to the problems involved in such sociological investigations, is described under three parts: "Prejudice and its Reduction," "Improving Teacher-Leader Training," and "The Point of Emphasis," an interpretation of contemporary positions regarding American society, social change, and individual *vs.* collective action. Chapter headings within these rubrics suggest the study's scope: "Prejudice: Its Nature and Development," "Group Process Teaching," "Changing Learners by Means of Academic Instruction," " Community Education and Co-ordination," and "Strategy and Tactics in Community Planning."

The processes described and the experiences within the framework of the question related offer analogies to intergroup problems elsewhere and, it is to be presumed a few keys for action. The basic problem, however, is much more difficult than may be at first imagined, for it revolves about the whole American value system and, most significantly, around its teachers in the public schools.

Dr. Cook surmises that a "teacher" is unfit to teach unless he can explain intelligently why people work so hard and what their daily living is all about! Otherwise, it is clear that we have become as the Schlaraffenlanders, whose culture was satirized by T. S. Eliot in these three lines:

Here were decent godless people;
Their only monument the asphalt road
And a thousand lost golf balls.

Do Americans still dream of a day when all people will be treated as people—when, in terms of personal worth, fair play, good will, and co-operation will have great value because they will be viewed as the essentials of decent living? Let us hope that they do. This is the aim of intergroup education.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Willamette University
Salem, Oregon

China, Japan and the Powers. By Meribeth E. Cameron, Thomas H. D. Mahoney, George E. McReynolds, Ronald Press, New York, 1952. Pp. 682. $4.50.

China, Japan and the Powers is a competent historical contribution to the growing body of knowledge concerning the Pacific area. It is a text designed for the college student and the general reader. The historical antecedents and geographic setting of Japan and China are traced in a comprehensive manner. It covers the entire period of recorded history. Interaction between the two oriental powers and the western nations is shown as it operated during the various eras of time.

The authors have achieved the difficult task of bringing together many parallel events. To do this, the book is constructed on the basis of chronological units. Each chapter stands alone and can be used as a reference on any particular aspect of the topic. Useful references for further reading are listed at the end of each chapter and there are enough maps to support the written material.

Style and selection of facts are excellent for a concise distillation of many centuries of history. There are frequent allusions to Chinese and Japanese institutions and to relations among the powers that enlighten the reader on the present day situations in the Pacific. Examples of this are the discussions of the Chinese law and its conflict with Anglo-Saxon law, the place of revolution in the Chinese tradition, oriental eclecticism, the rejection of the theory of revolution in the Japanese tradition, and the bitter lessons of history, which show that in the Pacific the Western nations have gotten by war what the Russians have been able to obtain by opportunism and skillful diplomacy. Most significant of all are the weighed statements concerning the reasons why we lost China and had a war in Korea. In the historical judgment of the authors, the recent setbacks in the Pacific stem from social trends operating for many years which have created problems too large for solution by the foreign policy of any one country. This interpretation gives little comfort to those Americans on the scene today

who are looking for scapegoats to receive personal blame.

The main weakness is one common to all texts. There is much historical and geographic detail that has no direct bearing on the modern scene. In the opinion of this reviewer, much of the narration of dynasties and dates in Japanese and Chinese history could well have been omitted without impairing the book as an instrument for understanding the present. It might be added that the interpretation of American policy toward China and Japan coincides with that of the State Department. Official documents are used which necessarily give chapters dealing with this aspect a national bias. The alert reader will be aware of this bias and will also be able to skim the irrelevant portions.

In spite of these criticisms, this work fills a real need for modern Americans who must have more than a superficial knowledge of Far Eastern affairs and American relations to them.

J. WADE CARUTHERS

Keene Teachers College
Keene, New Hampshire

NOTES ON CURRENT BOOKS

Youth on Trial. By Lucian J. Ciletti. Washington, Pennsylvania: Better The World Press, 1951. Pp. x, 254. $3.00.

This is a most unusual book and is the outgrowth of an essay contest on the subject "What Youth Can do Today to Better the World of Tomorrow."

The results of the contest were most gratifying as 153 students submitted essays in the contest. No field of activity, no unit of society escaped the analysis of these students who tell of the great need for hope and faith, love and understanding, knowledge and character, charity and service to fellowman. This book is excellent for use as collateral reading in Problems Courses in Senior High School.

The World Turned Upside Down. By Emma L. Patterson. New York: Longmans Green and Company, Incorporated, 1953. Pp. xix, 281. $3.00.

This is the story of a boy who stayed at home during the American Revolution and the war came to him. The section for this story is the Hudson Valley and describes battles and skirmishes, many of them among the most exciting and decisive of the Revolution, that raged up and down the valley of the Hudson. Teachers of this period of American History will find this book very profitable to use for collateral reading. There is no question that it will create interest and enthusiasm for this period of American History among students that may find the ordinary text burdensome.

Prehistoric Europe. By J. G. D. Clark. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. x, 349. $12.00.

This extensive research is concerned with ways in which early man, in competition with other forms of life, maintained himself on European soil after the Ice Age, and how he managed not merely to survive but to raise his standards from those of Savages to those of peasants ready to support the full weight of civilization.

Business Be Damned. By Elijah Jordan. New York: Henry Schuman, Incorporated, Publishers, 1952. Pp. xiv, 267. $4.00.

A critically constructive examination of business and its methods as they affect American industry, politics, religion, law, art, and education.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

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